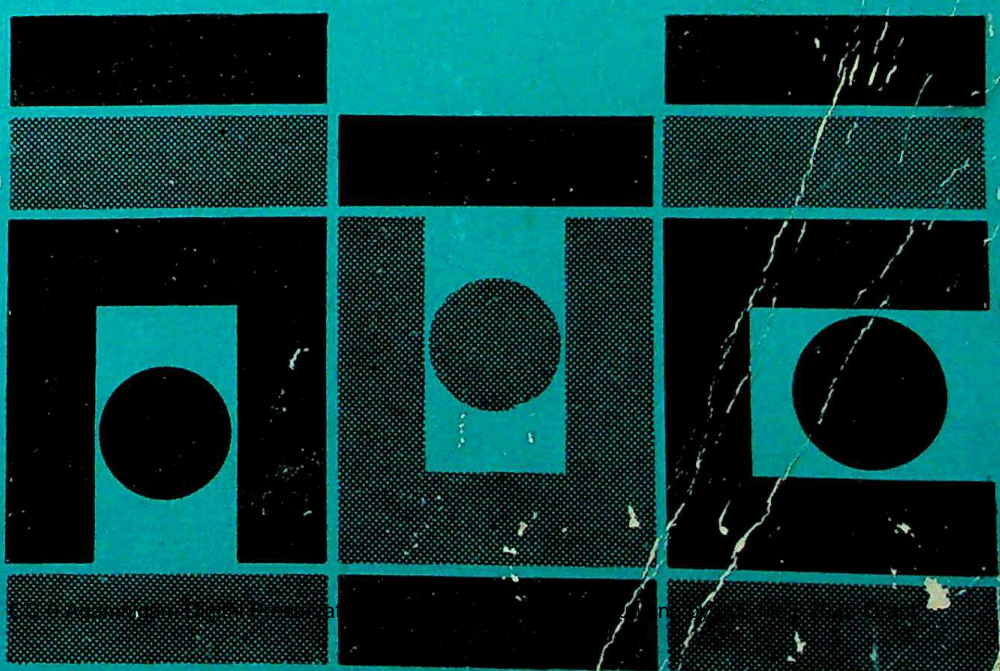
Gandhi Memorial College Of Education Bantalab Jammu

Office Organisation and Management

SECOND REVISED EDITION

S P Arora



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OFFICE ORGANISATION AND MANAGEMENT

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Second Revised Edition

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To the sweet and loving memory
of my father

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PREFACE

THE primary objective of the second edition of the book is the same as that of the first edition – to deal exhaustively and critically with the various facets of office management and organisation. Between the writing of the first edition and the second edition, some visible changes have taken place in the field of office management in the country. Office administration has started getting some recognition as a key area of management effort. More efficient and sophisticated machines have started arriving on the office scene. There is a growing awareness about the role of the office and of the people who manage it.

The book has been thoroughly revised in view of the changes in the syllabi of various universities and professional institutes in the country and abroad. Many new features have been added, including a separate Chapter on Security, which is a growing problem in the office. The book has, however, retained its basic character of being a companion to the student, teacher and the professional manager.

The author is grateful to numerous teachers, students and professional managers in the field, who made many valuable suggestions to improve the book. I have tried to incorporate these suggestions. I thank them for their contribution in the improvement of the book. I particularly owe a debt to Shri P. Bhatt of Kirori Mal College, Shri T.S. Soni of School of Correspondence Courses and Continuing Education, University of Delhi and Shri V.K. Aggarwal of the Institute of Company Secretaries of India, who made some useful suggestions to improve the book.

Once again, I request teachers, students and professional managers to send me their suggestions, comments and criticism for the improvement of the book.

I am grateful to the various authorities on the subject whose views I have used profusely.

I am also grateful to my wife, Amrit Arora, for her valuable support during the preparation of the new edition of the book.

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PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION

OFFICE management has become an important part of the management discipline. In the West, office management has the same importance as production management, personnel management or marketing management with a representation on the Board since it is the office that moves the wheels of business efficiently. It is the channel that joins the organisation with the outside world. Within the organisation, the mass of data gets accumulated in a systematic manner and is analysed for management action. The efficiency of the office is the index of the efficiency of any organisation.

The book deals exhaustively and critically with the various facets of office management and organisation. Functions of office have been studied critically. An effort has been made to elevate the office to the level of a function, like the finance function, personnel function or marketing function since office management studies in our country have not received the attention that is due to them. It is time that office must be recognised as key area of management attention. It is time that investment in an efficient office must be recognised as rewarding and fruitful as an investment in new technology, new patents, new processes or new marketing strategy. There are heavy returns of such investment.

The book is intended for students preparing for the undergraduate and post-graduate courses in the universities and the students pursuing their professional courses at the Institute of Cost and Works Accountants, Institute of Company Secretaries and the Institute of Chartered Accountants. The book would also prove a useful companion to the professional executives, who may find in it a source of ready reference. An effort has been made to project the Indian office equipment and machines with which the Indian office manager is familiar.

I would be grateful to teachers and students in the subject, who may offer their valuable suggestions and criticism for improvement in the text and material. I would also be grateful to the professional managers for the shortcomings they may point out in dealing with the subject.

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CONTENTS

1	The Office and Its Functions	1
2	Office Management and Office Manager	15
3	Office Organisation	31
4	Delegation of Authority and Departmentation	50
5	Office Systems and Routines	65
6	Office Accommodation and Layout	83
7	Office Environmemts	109
8	Security	127
9	Departments of Modern Office	135
10	Office Supervision	144
11	Records Management—I	166
12	Records Management—II	192
13	Office Furniture, Equipment and Machines—I	207
14	Office Furniture, Equipment and Machines—II	250
15	Forms, Design, Management and Control	280
16	Communication	297
17	Office Correspondence and Mail	321
18	Office Stationery and Supplies and Their Control	354
19	Standardisation, Standards and Work Measurement	373
20	Production Control and Quality Control	382
21	Office Cost Reduction and Cost Saving	393
22	Office Manuals and Office Audit	423
23	Business Reports	435
24	Statistical Data	448
25	Office Personnel—1	493
26	Office Personnel—II	528
	Name Index	*561*
	Subject Index	563

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Chapter 1

THE OFFICE AND ITS FUNCTIONS

MODERN business is complex. A business organisation today is faced with the ever-changing conditions. The present decade and the next are only the decades of change and challenge in our country. The manufacturing techniques are undergoing a rapid change and so also the techniques of management. The techniques of manufacture must be matched with the techniques of management. They are complementary to each other. The management techniques have to master the simple calculating machine as well as the complex computer. They have also to take care of the new emerging human relations in business. The ever-widening markets are a challenge by themselves. These markets, international and national, require changes in manufacturing management. These many problems of change are to be tackled with the help of information. As Terry[1] puts it, "Man's greatest tool today is information. . . . Information is required by all members of an enterprise. . . ." Retaining, analysing and furnishing the appropriate type of information for various purposes to various people and from time to time is a basic need of an enterprise. Broadly speaking, these activities are described as the functions of the modern office. Thus office has acquired an importance of its own in modern business.

MEANING OF OFFICE

The term office has been defined in a variety of ways. In simple words, it can be described as a place where some "business is carried on." This is an inadequate definition of office. Denyer[2] describes it as *a place where clerical operations are carried on.* Although the definition given by Denyer falls short of the modern concept of an office, yet it does convey an idea about its functional aspect. The term office is intimately

[1]Terry, George R., *Office Management and Control*, Sixth Edition, Richard D. Irwin Inc.

[2]Denyer, J.C., *Office Management*, The English Language Book Society and Macdonald and Evans Ltd., London 1969.

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connected with clerical operations. It is thus concerned with paper work The term office is to be identified with an *activity* and not a place. Wherever clerical operations are performed, they are office functions. They may be performed in a place called "the office" or in a godown, a shop or a factory.

Now we are in a position to attempt its definition. *Office can be described as any place where information on paper converges and information is documented, preserved and used for current and future operations of business.* This information may relate to production, marketing and various other activities of a business. Office lends cohesion and system to these activities. A proper record of orders and their execution is essential. Similarly a proper record of purchases made and the amount due and amount paid to suppliers is basic to the existence of a business.

IMPORTANCE OF OFFICE

Office can be described as an important part of an organisation. The very existence of an organisation or institution is based on the office. Whether it is a government department, or a business enterprise or an educational institution, office is vital for its functioning. In the case of a business enterprise, operations must be planned. Planning is to be followed by execution. These processes of management require control, communication and coordination of effort to achieve the well-defined objective. Besides, most of the commercial transactions of the enterprise necessitate clerical procedures to deal with orders, despatch, invoicing and payment. The executive processes and administrative routines of a business rely on office. To sum up, the importance of the office arises due to the following factors:

1. Office as information centre. It can be described as the information centre or data bank of an organisation. All kinds of information and figures, whether past or present, are available in the office. The information furnished by the office serves as the basis for forecast, planning and control.

2. Channel of communication. Office is the channel through which communications, especially written communications, move from top to bottom and in the reverse order as well. An organisation would fail, in spite of the best organisational talent, if objectives, policies, orders and results are not communicated in either direction.

3. Aids in coordination. The process of coordination is almost impossible without the presence of office. Office furnishes the machinery for coordination. Coordination is possible due to the links that office

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provides for various activities of the organisation. Office provides the necessary information and knowledge for coordination.

4. Aids in managerial controls. Control can be described as the measurement and correction of the performance of subordinates in order to make sure that enterprise objectives and the plans made to achieve them are accomplished. Control is thus a necessary function of management. *Controlling requires* (*i*) establishment of standards, (*ii*) measurement of performance against these standards; and (*iii*) correction of deviations from standards and plans. We cannot fulfil the requirements of control without the help of office. Necessary data, information and plans are prepared and presented on paper. All this is necessarily a clerical operation.

5. Importance vis-a-vis workers. Effective human relations require effective organisation. Preparation of wage and salary sheets and their payment are the responsibilities of the office. Office is also responsible for operating employee benefit schemes, *e.g.*, the pension and the provident fund schemes. In the absence of a good office, the organisation may face disgruntled workers.

6. Importance vis-a-vis shareholders and creditors. Office serves as the link between the shareholders on the one hand and company on the other. Work of issuse of share certificates, share transfer, issue of dividend warrants, issue of notice of company meetings and answering different enquiries of shareholders is of great importance which cannot be performed without the help of the office. Similarly office links the creditors with the organisation and has to act as servicing department for them.

7. Importance in relation to customers. The importance of office in relation to customers is of great significance. Office acts as the channel that links the business organisation with its customers. Their enquiries, orders and complaints are taken care of by the office through direct personal contact. Besides, newspaper medium is also used by the office to inform the customers about products and their uses.

8. Importance in relation to government and general public. Today a business organisation is recognised as a social institution. It is required to satisfy government regulations. The office acts as the link between different government departments and the organisation. Office is also the link between the general public and the organisation. Office is responsible for creating a proper type of image for the organisation in the minds of people. It is responsible for building up a healthy social image. An organisation cannot be anti-social and this idea has to be conveyed to outsiders.

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FUNCTIONS OF OFFICE

The functions of a modern office can be classified into two categories. (*a*) Basic or routine functions, and (*b*) Administrative management functions.

Basic or Routine Functions

Terry[1] recommends the term of "*information management*," which, he says, is gaining usage in preference to that of the older term, office management. Both the terms, as he points out, are to be used simultaneously meaning the same thing because the term office management also finds wide acceptance and universal usage. The basic functions of office relate to information. Mills and Standingford[2] state the purpose of office in these words: "The purpose of the office has been defined as the providing of a service of communication and record." Denyer[3] also expresses similar views. "The office has been said to provide a service of communication and record; in fact a leading spokesman of the Institute of Administrative Management has referred to the office manager as the 'information officer'."

Above views clearly indicate the nature of the functions of the office in the enterprise. The acts of receiving, collecting, processing, storing, retrieving and distributing information are the basic functions of the office. These functions of the office now rank at par with all the other essential functions of the enterprise. No enterprise can hope to exist without these functions.

Let us now study these basic functions of the modern office to understand their nature.

1. Receiving and collecting information. The office receives and collects information about the various activities of the organisation. This information may be from (*i*) *the internal sources*, *i.e.*, the different departments, sections or divisions of the organisation; and (*ii*) *the external sources*.

(*i*) *Internal sources.* In the normal course of their functioning, various divisions or departments receive and gather information to perform various management tasks. For example, the marketing department may receive consumers' reactions to a new product; the personnel department may collect information about turnover of labour; or the

[1]Terry, *op. cit.*

[2]Mills, G. and Standingford, O., *Office Organization and Method*, Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons Ltd., p. 1.

[3]Denyer, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

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finance department may gather information about the reactions of investors to a new public issue. All this information is transmitted to the office through various means, like the telephone, circulars, notes and letters.

(*ii*) *External sources.* Information is also received and collected from outside sources by the office. The information may be received or collected from the government departments, financial institutions, research institutions, universities and the general public. The external information may relate to the corporate indentity of the organisation, industrial relations and so on. For example, the Companies Act and the various labour laws affect the existence and functioning of the organisation. The information from external sources is received or collected in a number of ways. These sources are, firstly, the *primary sources*, and secondly, the *secondary sources.* Information is gathered from telephone, newspapers, business journals and Government circulars concerning the administration of various laws concerning the enterprise. Questionnaires may also be prepared by the office and sent out through post or in charge of investigators to collect information for use in the organisation. The executives also gather various types of information when they attend conventions, seminars and conferences or visit other offices.

2. Recording information. The information received and collected must be given a suitable shape. This is done by converting the information into the written record. The form and size of the written record would depend upon numerous factors like importance of information, the nature of information and the use to which the information can be put. Routine circulars and catalogues do not have a long life and thus they are not important. On the other hand, government directives and laws are important and thus they must be processed and recorded with care for future reference. Companies Act and amendments in it are of constant value to a corporate organisation. It would be thus necessary to keep a proper record of the requirements of the Companies Act. Records also serve as the basis for the management information and management action. Future production and sales can be forecast only with the help of the records of past performances. It is thus essential that the information gathered should be recorded in a suitable form otherwise the management action may fail to achieve the desired objective.

3. Arranging or processing information. This is a vital function of the office. In fact, it is perhaps the most important basic function of the office. The information received cannot be used by the mangement in the form in which it has been received. It has to be processed.

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Processing involves the preparation of summaries, notes, reports, statistical tables, diagrams and graphs relating to the various types of information relating to different processes of business. While information is being processed, it would be essential to keep in mind the nature and importance of a particular information.

4. Communicating information. All accumulated and processed information is useless unless it is put to further use. The use of information is only possible through communication. The office furnishes the *two-way chunel* for information, it receives information and then it transmits the same to the relevant departments for their use. Classification of information to be communicated may be on the basis of its nature, time, etc. It is of the following categories: (*i*) It may be *routine information* or special information. Some of the basic information may be weekly/monthly work statements, statements of bank accounts, attendance and absence statements, statements of inventories, etc. *Special information* may relate to recruitment tests, promotions, government ordinances, amendments in taxation laws and so on. Where information is of special nature it may have to be transmitted immediately or in a confidential manner. (*ii*) Information to be communicated may be *oral* or *in writing*. Where information to be communicated is of urgent nature, it would be better to transmit the same orally. Use of committees is often made to transmit information through the spoken word. (*iii*) Information may be *internal information* or *external information*. Internal information may relate to wage-sheets and production levels while external information may relate to the marketing strategy of a rival or the reliability of the supplier of raw materials. (*iv*) Another category of information is the *active information* and the *passive information*. Active information requires its recipient to take some action on it, for example, a purchase order. Passive information, on the other hand, does not require any such action, for example, a notification that the shipment has been made. (*v*) The information may also be the *past information* or the *future information*. Planning needs future information and projections are made on the basis of the past information.

Whatever be the type or nature of information to be transmitted and whatever be the mode to transmit the same, it is essential to communicate the information promptly, otherwise the information gathered and processed at great cost would prove useless.

Administrative Management Functions

The functions discussed above are the basic functions of the office but there are certain administrative management functions which are

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to be performed for the smooth functioning of the office. These administrative management functions are to be the responsibility of the Administrative Office Manager. Such functions are performed to improve the efficiency of the office. They relate to the safeguarding and protection of assets, establishment of systems, stationery control, choice and use of office equipment and furniture, and selection, training, placement and remuneration of the personnel.

The administrative management functions are auxiliary to the basic functions of the office, but the modern office cannot hope to work smoothly unless the administrative management functions are performed. Following are some of the important administrative management functions:

1. Safety and record of assets. The office keeps in safe-custody the records of assets of business. Besides, it is also responsible for their upkeep and safety. Assets are of different kinds. They may be fixed assets like buildings, machines, office equipment, furniture, airconditioning systems and lighting systems. The assets may also be in the shape of cash, deeds of ownership of buildings and share and debenture certificates. Documents to title, share certificates and bond certificates must be well-preserved. Suitable legal action is to be initiated if the asset is in jeopardy. Not only this, fixed assets are to be maintained and kept in good condition. The assets are protected against hazards of fire and theft through insurance and other means.

2. Function of management processes. Various processes of management account for the efficient functioning of an organisation. In brief these processes are: (*i*) Planning, (*ii*) Organising, (*iii*) Staffing, (*iv*) Directing, (*v*) Communicating, (*vi*) Controlling, (*vii*) Coordinating, and (*viii*) Motivating. These processes of management are also to be applied to the management of office. Work has to be planned and then organised and executed according to the plan.

3. Instituting office systems and routines. In any modern organisation it is necessary to institute systems and routines. (They would be studied in greater detail later). Systems and routines indicate a systematic and planned approach to the problem of management. A *system* is a group of inter-related and inter-dependent parts operating in a sequence on the basis of a pre-determined plan to achieve the goals of the enterprise. *Routines* are a series of steps to be taken to perform a task as per the systems. Systems are to be instituted for different tasks in the office and each system is to be broken into so many parts for defining the routines for each system.

4. Forms designing and control. Preparation of records is a basic function of the office. Office forms are used extensively for the purpose

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of preparing records. "*A form is a standardised record used to accumulate and transmit information for reference purposes.*" Thus the forms serve as a store-house of information. However, to derive the maximum benefit from the use of forms, it would be essential that they are properly designed on the basis of the needs of the organisation. Besides, it would be desirable to redesign them on the basis of the changing needs of the organisation.

5. Stationery and supplies control. Stationery and other supplies also require careful purchasing and proper storage. In today's office, stationery is a costly consumable material. Thus utmost care would have to be taken in the purchase, storage and issue of stationery and supplies. The stationery and miscellaneous supplies should be bought at economic prices; reasonable levels of their stocks must be available at all times; they must be issued against specific authorised requisitions; and the storage should be scientific.

6. Selecting and purchasing office machines, equipment and furniture. Modern office requires for its functioning proper types of machines, equipment and furniture. Office machines may be as simple as small date-stamping machines or as complicated as modern computer. Whatever be the machine, it would be essential to follow certain principles in their selection. A machine must be utilised to the full, it should be suitable for the purpose for which it has been bought, it should be durable, it should be simple to operate and maintain, it should be adaptable to different uses and above all should be bought keeping in view the financial resources. Furniture promotes efficiency and adds to the look of the office. In choosing office furniture, cost and benefit would be analysed.

7. Recruiting, training, placing and remunerating office personnel. Although the problem of personnel is a part of the total management process, yet it would be essential to pay special attention to the personnel at all levels in the office. The efficiency of the office depends very much on the personnel manning it. The personnel should be scientifically selected and trained and assigned work after proper appraisal. It would be also essential to evaluate their work from time to time. The office staff has to be properly motivated to attain peak performance. Opportunities for betterment and promotion must be provided. All this is the task of administrative office management.

8. Effective public relations. Public relations are a very important aspect of the functions of modern office. Danny Griswold[1] describes public relations thus: "The management function which evaluates

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[1]Brech, E.F.L. (Ed.) *Principles of Management*, Longmans.

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public attitudes, identifies the policies and procedures of an individual or an organisation with the public interest, and executes a programme of action to earn public understanding and acceptance." *The public relations are*: (*i*) To keep the management informed about the changing public opinion, (*ii*) To communicate properly to the public the policies, aims and objectives of the organisation, and (*iii*) To warn in advance the possible unfavourable reaction on the part of public vis-a-vis a certain action of the organisation. These objects are to be attained by the office.

Summary of Basic Functions of Modern Office

The basic functions can be sub-divided and summarised into different activities as given in the following table:

TABLE 1.1. SUMMARY OF BASIC FUNCTIONS

	Activity performed	*Why performed*	*Results in*
1.	*Creating*	To initiate and bring data into existence	Existence and availability of data
2.	*Collecting*	To bring together data for processing or storing	Identity of data location and volume
3.	*Reading*	To interpret data by going over words, symbols and characters	Awareness that data exists
4.	*Writing, typing card punching or papertape perforating (often called input)*	To facilitate processing by putting data on or in medium, *i.e.*, numerical or alphabetical marks on paper, holes in paper, magnetic areas on tape and magnetic ink on paper. (Tapes and magnetic ink are often used in the USA and countries of the West)	Beginning of data processing
5.	*Recording or printing* (often called *output*)	To obtain results of processing the data in medium form for processing purposes—are	Completion of data processing

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	converted into a form which is easily read by human being (if already not in that form)	
6. *Sorting*	To classify the data	Data gets related to one or more bases
7. *Transmitting*	To give or send out the data for dissemination	Data availability for specific purpose and place
8. *Calculating*	To manipulate the data mathematically, if necessary	Numerical data being added, subtracted, divided or multiplied
9. *Comparing*	To check data for accuracy and completeness	Qualitative and Quantitative inspection of data
10. *Storing*	To set aside or retain data for future use	Data gets available when needed

Summary of Administrative Management Functions

Summary of activities relating to administrative management functions is given in Table 1.2.

TABLE 1.2. SUMMARY OF ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS

Activity performed	*Why performed*	*Results in*
1. *Management Functions*	To plan, organise, control and motivate, etc.	Achievement of objectives
2. *Instituting office systems*	To facilitate management task	Elimination of errors; better coordination; and liberation of management, *i.e.* better delegation
3. *Forms designing and control*	To facilitate accumulation and communication of	Gathering only that information which is necessary

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		information	and in providing a specific location for each item of information needed
4.	*Stationery and misc. supplies control*	To facilitate the flow, purchase and scientific storage of stationery and other supplies	Availability of stationery and supplies at all time at the most economic cost
5.	*Selection and purchase of office machines, equipment and furniture*	To facilitate the purchase of the best machines, equipment and furniture and their proper maintenance.	Best utilisation of machines and equipment and the least discomfort for people at work
6.	*Selecting, training placement and remunerating office personnel*	To facilitate the best selection and optimum use of human resource	Efficient work force and least cost of work
7.	*Record and protection of assets*	To preserve assets and avoid losses of accidental nature	Avoiding losses and work-stoppages
8.	*Public Relations*	To assess reactions of the public to management actions	Building good image in the minds of the public

SIZE OF THE OFFICE

Determination of the size of the office is a basic problem faced by each organisation. There are two aspects to the problem of size of the office. One can be described as the factor of historical growth, *i.e.*, a very small office of a small organisation grows into a large office due to the growth of the organisation. There is little suddenness about the growth of the office. Then there is the other aspect, namely, of the promotion of a large organisation, which must have a large office at the very outset. Between the small office and the large office, there is the medium-sized office.

Measurement of the Size of the Office

The size of the office can be measured in one of the following ways:

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1. **Number of employees.** The number of employees in an office may be an index to the size of the office. However, it must be remembered that an army of inefficient employees may be no match to a small number of efficient employees.

2. **Size of salary bill.** This can be another index to the size. But again, as in the previous case, differences in efficiency may give no exact idea about the size.

3. **Investment in equipment and machines.** This can be another index to the size of an office. Investment in modern technology for the office operations may be a part of the management philosophy of one organisation while another organisation may consider such investment unnecessary.

4. **Total administrative expenditure.** While budgets of expenditure of an organisation are prepared, the office budget is also prepared. The total expenditure provided in the budget can be a fairly good index of the size of the office. However, this has a major drawback which is that where office buildings are owned by the organisation, the rent is not a part of the expenditure; and this is a major item of expense in metropolitan cities.

In practice, these and some other factors may be considered to determine the size of the office.

Factors Affecting Fixation of the Size of the Office

The top management, and also the office manager, would do well to consider the following factors to determine the size of the office:

1. Size of the office of similar organisations in the industry.
2. Output and turnover.
3. Design of layout.
4. Investment in sophisticated machines and how they save on time and labour.
5. Organisational structure and management philosophy.
6. Systems design.

CHALLENGES OF THE FUTURE

The development of the office in our country has become an important problem in the context of industrialisation and increased economic activity. The office in our country faces challenges of different kinds. These challenges are social, political and economic, chief of which are stated as follows:

1. **Challenge of mechanisation.** The office activity is becoming more and more mechanised. Sophisticated machines, like the computers

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are being installed. The Delhi Cloth Mills were one of the first to instal them. The challenge is contained in their maintenance and proper use. Office machines become a useless burden if they are not serviced and used adequately.

2. Challenge of the growth of enterprises. As industrialisation grows, the firms grow in size. The problems of growth may arise due to the desire to have greater exports or greater sales. The country aims at raising exports to sustain economy. The modern business office also functions to further the economic aims of the enterprise as well as of the country.

3. Challenge of legal provisions. To cope with the changing social and political moves, it is essential for the office of an organisation to gear itself to face this challenge. The Constitution and the laws are changed constantly to achieve the goals of the society. Considering the fact that we are going through a period of quick changes, it would be essential to face this challenge by enlarging the scope of the functions of the office.

4. Challenge of application of the principles of management. Many firms are changing their management outlook. They have been influenced by the changing management scene. There are many organisations which are yet to apply the principles of management in a proper way. This is another challenge. The processes of management will have to be applied to the office.

5. Challenge of reducing paper work. This is a major challenge. The office will have to distinguish between the essential paper work and the non-essential paper work to be performed.

6. Challenge of proper recruitment of the office staff. All clerical work in our country is being considered derogatory. This is a major social challenge. It is necessary to attract better entrants to clerical work and train them properly. It is possible to meet this challenge if proper incentives are provided both in terms of good salary grades and promotional opportunities.

7. Challenge of systems integration.[1] Systems approach is getting more and more important in the more progressive business enterprises of our country. A well-managed firm has many systems. The entire firm is viewed as a master system, consisting of separate systems for making and completing sales, buying or producing goods, providing personnel and carrying out other work sequences, etc. The master system would collapse unless there is integration of the various systems in the organisation. This is bound to be more and more important,

[1] These have been discussed at a great length in another Chapter of the Book.

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as more organisations take to systems approach.

8. Challenge of growing numbers and costs.[1] Possibly no other work-force in the country has multiplied so fast and so much as the clerical or office workers. On a rough estimate, more than one-half of all the employed workers in Government; and organised industry, trade and commerce belong to this category. Office workers are thus a major part of cost of output at different levels. Large numbers create problems of control, coordination and direction as well. Therefore, the growth in numbers and increased cost are a challenge to managers, particularly office managers.

QUESTIONS

1. "The office is management." Do you agree with this statement? Explain.
2. "The purpose of the office has been defined as the providing of a service of communication and record." Explain.
3. What is an 'Office' ? Discuss the functions of office.
4. "Office is the control centre of an organisation." Comment.
5. What is the meaning of the term 'office'? Discuss its importance in a modern business organisation.
6. What are the functions of a modern office? How are they different from the administrative management functions? What are the challenges of future that the office faces today?
7. How would you measure the size of the office?
8. A large company has been incorporated recently. The company has appointed you as its Manager (Administration). The Chief Executive wants you to define the functions of the office. Further you are required to fix up the size of the office. State the relevant factors and also the suggestions to fix up the size.

[1]It is estimated that in the USA about 50% of the work-force would have consisted of white-collar workers by mid-seventies. (Place, Irving, Hicks, Charles B., Wilkinson, Robin L., Office Management, Canfield Press, 1971).

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Chapter 2

OFFICE MANAGEMENT AND OFFICE MANAGER

BEFORE we define what is office management, it would be necessary to understand the importance and meaning of the term magnagement.

MEANING OF OFFICE MANAGEMENT

The emergence of management as an essential, a distinct and leading institution is a pivotal event in social history. Rarely, if ever, has a new basic institution, a new leading group, emerged as fast as has management since the turn of this century.[1] Management will remain a basic and dominant institution perhaps as long as modern industrialism lasts. It is with this background in mind that we consider the issues involved in our study.

In order to know what is management, it would be proper to understand the meaning of management as a function. All kinds of institutions—social, political or economic—are formed by groups of individuals to pursue common goals and objectives. The attainment of these commonly defined objectives shall be the fulfilment of these groups. A business enterprise has the objective of maximising its profits through increased output and sales and to create an image in the society in general as a good employer and producer of quality products. It also contributes to the economic growth. Management is composed of individuals and materials. If the activities of these individuals are not lent cohesion, the result will be chaos. Each man in the enterprise shall be pushing his own activity with no collective objective in mind. But if there is an agency that directs the activities of various individuals in an enterprise, the result will be synthesis and cohesion. Men will work on machines and materials to achieve the common objectives set forth by that agency.

[1]Drucker, Peter F., *Practice of Management*, Mercury Books, William Heinemann Ltd.

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Now we are in position to define management. The process used by the said ageney can be stated as the process of management. *Management can be defined as principally a task of planning, coordinating, motivating the efforts of others towards the specific objective* In brief, management is the task of unifying efforts efficiently to achieve well-defined objectives. From our definition, it is clear that management is applicable not only to business organisations but also to other institutions in a society which work for defined goals. The resources available to an organisation or institution remain idle till they are directed by the dynamic human effort. The management, therefore, aims at "seeing that the job gets done and done efficiently." From the point of view of the society, the objectives should not be anti-social. Besides, the men involved in the achievement of objectives should be provided with maximum satisfaction.

The management in a business enterprise is like the brain in human body directing its various functions. The brain gives direction and purpose to a mass of matter. In a business enterprise materials, equipment and machines are inert and do nothing on their own. These factors must be put to use in a coordinated manner to achieve efficient and profitable functioning of the enterprise. This, in brief, is the function of management.

The process of management is common to all activities of a business organisation. In the office, activities are carried on by a group of people. *The information management*[1] *or office management can thus be defined as a task of planning, coordinating, motivating the efforts of others towards the specific objectives in the office and in conformity with the over-all objectives of the organisation.*

FUNCTIONS OF OFFICE MANAGEMENT

Since the process of office management is similar to the general process of business management, thus the office management performs functions similar to those performed by management. They have been summarised as follows:

1. Planning

Planning is a basic function of office management. It can be described as the beginning of other functions. *Planning can be described as*

[1]Terry asserts that the term information management is gaining usage in preference to that of the term office management (Terry, *Office Management and Control*). However, we would use both the terms meaning the same thing.

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a well defined course of future action. It, therefore, takes care of the uncertainties of future—economic, social and political. Fayol[1] points out, "The plan of action is, at one and the same time, the result envisaged, the line of action to be followed, the stages to go through, and methods to use. It is a kind of future picture wherein proximate events are outlined with some distinctness whilst remote events appear progressively less distinct . . . " Planning is a mental process based on available mass of facts and future possibilities. Thus it requires the use of trained knowledge, imagination, foresight and sound judgement. Office operations are to be planned with reference to the overall objectives of business.

(*a*) **Objectives of planning.** Koontz and O'Donnell[2] state the following objectives: Planning is done: (*i*) *to offset change and uncertainty;* (*ii*) *to focus attention on objectives;* (*iii*) *to gain economical operations; and* (*iv*) *to facilitate control.*

In the case of office, these objectives of planning are to be coordinated with reference to the objectives of business enterprise as set forth by its managers.

(*b*) **Benefits of planning.** Planning of office function results in the following benefits:

(*i*) Planning *gives direction* to activities in the office and thus everything becomes purposeful.

(*ii*) Planning *focuses attention on objectives.*

(*iii*) Planning *helps to offset change* and uncertainty.

(*iv*) Planning *facilitates control* in the office.

(*v*) Planning *helps in economical operations* as the office staff has a clear-cut idea about targets and goals, and

(*vi*) Planning also *takes care of the growth* of business operations. Thus the office is not found wanting when the firm grows.

(*c*) **Elements or components of planning.** Planning, to be effective, must have the following components:

Forecasting. Forecasting is the starting point and it is this ingredient on which the business bases its future course of action. *Forecasting can be described as the projection of the present trends into the future.* James W. Redfield[3] summarises the essential elements in the forecast process:

[1]Fayol, H.,"Administration Industraelle et Generale" 1916, Translated English Edition, *General and Industrial Management*, Pitman Paperback.

[2]Koontz Harold and Cyril O'Donnell, *Principles of Management*, McGraw-Hill Book Company - International Student Edition, 1965.

[3]Quoted by Koontz and O'Donnell, *op. cit.*

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(*i*) *Developing the ground-work* by carrying out an orderly investigation of products, company, and industry to determine how each of these has progressed. (*ii*) *Estimating future business* is the next step. The key executives mutually help in developing the forecast and therefore they assume responsibility for performance. (*iii*) *Comparing actuals with estimated results* helps in assessing the variations from the projections. (*iv*) *Refining the forecast process* is desirable for better planning in future.

Objectives. Objectives, or goals, are the ends toward which activity is aimed. These objectives are for an enterprise and for each of its departments. The goals of each department contribute to the attainment of the common objective of the enterprise but the goals of a department may be different from the goals of an enterprise although these departmental goals help attain the common objectives. It is necessary to define these objectives clearly for proper planning. The management should balance and reconcile the conflicting objectives of various departments, including the office, of the organisation. Once the objectives have been set forth they should be publicised for the information of the incharges and heads of various departments and divisions.

Policies. Policy making is an integral part of the process of planning. *Policies are rules or principles which govern the activities of an organisation towards the achievement of its defined objectives.* Policies guide or channel thinking in decision-making, or in other words, policies lead to objectives. There are a variety of policies but they have the following *features* in common: (*i*) They delimit the area within which a decision is to be made. (*ii*) They tend to predecide issues and thus allow the managers to delegate their authority. (*iii*) "Policies have as many levels as organisation. . . . " Ordinarily, for example, the Board of Directors may state board and general policies and the departmental heads, including the office manager, may frame policies keeping in mind the broad policies.

Procedures. Procedures are truly " guides to action". They tell as to how a particular activity can be achieved. In other words, they are the standard methods by which works of certain types are done. Many procedures cut across department lines. Procedures ensure uniform action. They also encourage proper analysis and study of the work especially when they are in writing. They also provide a useful outline for developing people and thus help reduce the time and expense on training. However, they often reduce the initiative of managers.

Programmes. Programmes are well-defined courses of action. They are necessary to implement policies and achieve objectives. They provide a step-by-step approach to guide actions needed to reach the pre-

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defined objective. They are to be prepared in a tabular form or narrative form. Care must be taken that they are closely integrated with objectives.

Schedules. Schedules are time-tables of work to be done. They essentially form a part of the programmes and can be described as the planning of the time aspect of various operations.

Budgets. Budgets are estimates of expected expenses, and projected incomes. Although they are mostly expressed in money terms, yet they can be expressed in terms of time, materials and other units as well. Budgets and programmes are also prepared for subordinate elements after taking into account the short-and long-term goals and objectives. Budgets are necessary for control but they cannot serve as sensible standards of control unless they reflect plans.

Strategies. The term "strategies" is being increasingly used in relation to planning. Anthony[1] defines them as resulting from "the process of deciding on objectives, on the resources used to attain these objectives, and on the policies that govern the acquisition, use and disposition of these resources." Strategies are of two *kinds*: (*i*) *Grand strategies* which are designed to change the size and character of business over a period of time. (*ii*) *Competitive strategies* which take into account the plans and programmes of the rivals in the market.

2. Organising

The function of *organising refers to the creation of a structure of duties and functions to achieve the objectives of the enterprise.* Urwick describes organisation as "determining what activities are necessary for any purpose (or plan) and arranging them in groups which may be assigned to individuals." Organisation thus is concerned with activity-authority relationship. The office is to be "organised" and duties and functions are to be defined to determine activity-authority relationship so that the office functions smoothly.

3. Staffing

Staffing is the executive function which involves the recruitment, selection, compensating, training, promotion and retirement of sub-ordinate managers. Office management also involves this process. How can the office hope to function smoothly without staffing? It is the human element that will ultimately determine the efficiency of the office and in turn that of the enterprise.

[1]Anthony, R.N., *Planning and Control Systems: A Framework for Analysis.* Harvard Business School, 1965.

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4. Directing

It can be described as the function of command. "The successful direction of subordinates results in knowledgeable well-trained people who work efficiently towards the enterprise objectives." *Direction can be described as the process of guiding and supervising the subordinates.* In the office, the work of different subordinates is to be guided and supervised. The idea is to give a specific direction to various activities in the office with a view to its proper functioning. There are certain underlying principles of direction which must be considered when this function is performed. Koontz and O'Donnell describe these principles as basic to the direction function. These principles relate to technique, communication, command, harmony, leadership, etc.

5. Communication

The American Society of Training Directors defines good communication "as the interchange of thought or information to bring about mutual understanding and confidence or good human relations." Newman and Summer define communication as "*an exchange of facts, ideas, opinions or emotions by two or more persons.*" Communication thus forms the basis of understanding between the various members of organisation. Effective communication is one where a thing is understood in the same sense in which it has been communicated. It is effective communication which unifies organised activity. Communication is particularly important in the function of direction. Communication is the means by which behaviour is modified, change is affected, and goals are achieved. Barnard was the first amongst the leading authors to give serious thought to communication. He viewed it as the means by which people were linked together in an organisation in order to achieve a central purpose. In brief, communication is essential for effective direction and motivation.

Communication is a basic function of office management. It is with this aspect that the office deals most. In fact, office itself is one of the basic channels of communication. To establish good communication it is essential to follow certain *principles*. They are: (*i*) principle of *clarity*, (*ii*) principle of *attention*, (*iii*) principle of *integrity*, and (*iv*) principle of *strategic use of informal organisation.*

6. Controlling

Brech[1] defines control as "checking current performance against pre-determined standards contained in the plans, with a view to ensur-

[1] Brech, *op. cit.*

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ing adequate progress and satisfactory performance whether physical or financial, also contributing to decision in continuing or changing the plans as well as "recording' the experience gained from the working of these plans as a guide to possible future operations." Koontz and O'Donnell give a simpler definition, "*The managerial function of control is the measurement and correction of the performance of subordinates in order to make sure that enterprise objectives and the plans devised to attain them are accomplished.*"[1] In brief, it is the function whereby a manager makes sure that what is done is what is intended. The beginning of control is proper and careful planning and outlining of effective ways to achieve the objectives defined in the plans. The control must be forward looking. However, the manager must study the past, note down the failures and prevent them from repeating in future.

Controlling is basic to office management. Performance of office staff has to be measured and corrective steps are to be taken to make sure that aims of office *vis-a-vis* that of the enterprise are attained. However, an effective control system must have certain *characteristics*, chief of which are that it should be economical, flexible, objective, understandable, forward–looking, capable of reporting deviations promptly and should reflect the nature and need of a particular office.

7. Coordinating

Coordination can be stated as the essence of management. Brech defines it as the "balancing and keeping the team together by ensuring a suitable allocation of working activities to the various members, and seeing that these are preformed with due harmony among the members themselves." In other words, *coordination is the task that aims at bringing cohesion in the activities of different persons in the organisation so that group goals can be accomplished.* Need for coordination in the office arises because different people in the office have different ideas as to how group goals can be attained. There is also the problem of harmonising the individual objectives. "It thus becomes the central task of the manager to reconcile difference in approach, timing, effort or interest and to harmonize cooperative and individual goals."

In order to have effective coordination in the office, it is necessary that coordination must have the following pre-requisites:

(*i*) Individuals should understand how their jobs contribute to the dominant goals of enterprise.

(*ii*) Enterprise objective must be known to each and every member

[1]**Koontz and O 'Donnell,** *op. cit.*

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of the group.

(*iii*) The goals of subordinate departments must be designed to contribute to enterprise goals.

Principles of coordination. Mary Parker Follet gives the following principles for attaining coordination in the organisation or any of its parts:

(*i*) *Principle of direct contact.* Coordination must be achieved through direct contact among the parties concerned. This would avoid red-tapism and ensure promptness.

(*ii*) *Principle of early beginning.* It is necessary to achieve coordination with early stages of planning and policy making.

(*iii*) *Principle of reciprocal relationships.* All factors like sales, production, management, finance in a situation must be reciprocally related.

(*iv*) *Principle of continuity.* Coordination has to be a continuous process because various conditions are ever-changing.

8. Motivating

Motivating is an extremely complex problem since it is linked with human beings. *Motivation means inducing subordinates to work with zeal and gusto and cooperate for achieving the objectives of the organisation.* Office manager must motivate people to peak performance. The motivational system, whether in the office or elsewhere, must satisfy the ego needs of the group besides being flexible, competitive, comprehensive and productive. If a motivational system has these characteristics, it shall help achieve the following in the office:

1. Provides financial opportunities to executives.
2. Provides growth in stature and responsibility.
3. Helps in discipline.
4. Keeps morale high.
5. Helps set examples for subordinates.

The net result is a contended work-force with high morale and achievement of programmes and policies.

OFFICE MANAGER

This is an age of specialisation. People specialise in a fraction of total activity. In business, people specialise in production, transport, purchasing or selling. Most of the specialists do not have much aptitude for work of routine nature. Besides, some of the professionals may not be managers at all. A manager is a man who gets things done by working with people and other resources to achieve the objectives. In order to

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achieve the objectives, he coordinates the activities of others and controls them. He organises them and provides them with direction and leadership. He integrates the work of his department with that of other departments. A person may be appointed to head the office and may be designated as office manager. *Office manager is, therefore, an executive who is incharge of an office and whose chief function is to organise and control it; and he integrates the work of the office with that of other departments.* Thus he is an office manager if he performs the function of control and direction of the office, no matter by which functional name he is called. In our country, many other terms are being used for the term office manager by many organisations, *e.g.*, Manager Administration, Commercial Manager, Administrative Manager, etc.

Position of the Office Manager

Position of the office manager is of great importance. His position *vis-a-vis* the organisation is summed up below:

1. **Responsible for implementation of policies.** He is a part of management and is the last link in the chain of command from top management. He is responsible for getting the work done in the office and see that management policies are properly implemented.

2. **Affects morale.** Since he is the only official with whom the office workers are coming into contact everyday, he will affect their morale and their willingness to cooperate and work.

3. **Man in the middle.** He is in a difficult but important position. He has to face both ways, he has to represent the management to the workers, and workers to the management. Hence his position is of great importance.

4. **Recruitment and training.** He is required to recruit, advise and train his subordinates. This important function cannot be performed without an office manager who enjoys a suitable place in the organisation.

5. **Public relations man.** In a modern organisation, the office manager is necessarly the public relations man. He projects the organisation before the public. He gathers information about public reaction to the policies of the organisation and communicates them to the top management. He also forewarns the management of changing public opinion.

Qualities that Make a Good Office Manager

The office manager, like any other manager in an organisation, must possess certain qualities to be a good manager. They are summed

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up as follows:

1. **Proper education, training and experience.** A sound educational background is a great asset of the office manager. Although it is difficult to lay down a hard and fast rule as to the standard of formal education that he must have attained, yet it is essential that he should be able to communicate well in writing as well as in spoken word. Besides, he should possess an analytical mind to take care of different situations arising in the office. He should also be well-trained in office management procedures and systems, office machines and equipment and office routines. An awareness about the social and political environments is also an important part of his personal education as this would help him in judging behaviour of his subordinates.

Experience is a great teacher because it matures an individual. The best education or training might prove useless unless it is backed by experience. It would be ideal if the office manager has worked and gained practical experience in the office of an organisation doing similar type of business or engaged in similar industry.

2. **Ability to delegate work.** This quality of the office manager is fundamental to his functioning without which he can hardly hope to function. Delegation helps distribute the work-load of the manager and allows the firm to expand. While delegating he should take into consideration the fundamental principles of delegating.[1] He should initiate steps to delegate authority. In fact he should go further and train workers in the receipt of delegation and who, in turn, may be able to delegate further.

3. **Ability to organise.** Office manager should be a great organiser. Since everything in the enterprise depends upon the office, he should be able to organise the office properly so that it serves the objectives and goals of the enterprise.

4. **Leadership.** This quality is common to all managers whether they are in production, selling, purchasing, personnel or office. *Leadership is the ability to enthuse, to inspire and guide subordinates.* Field Marshal Montgomery defines leadership as the capacity and will to rally men and women to a common purpose. Chester I. Barnard states leadership as "the quality of the behaviour of individuals whereby they guide people or their activities in organised effort." The essence of leadership is the ability to get best out of people as well as individuals.

Need for leadership. Need for leadership is ingrained in the group effort. Ill-equipped business teams accomplish tasks which are beyond

[1]See chapter, "Delegation of Authority" in the book.

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the reach of well-equipped teams. Besides the need for achieving common objectives, two factors call for leadership: (*i*) First factor is the factor of *common sense of authority*. As Malinowsk[1] points out, "Authority is the very essence of social organisation." Therefore, leadership (identified with authority) becomes necessary. (*ii*) Second factor relates to the *indifference and forgetfulness*, etc. of people. Leadership is required to tackle the problems of indifference, forgetfulness, short sightedness and apprehensions of people. In other words, some people are to be led for a variety of reasons.

5. Personal qualities. There is a long list of personal qualities that the office manager must possess, more important of which are tact, self-control, enthusiasm, sincerity and adaptability. These personal qualities would enthuse and motivate the subordinates better. Thus personal qualities would help attain objectives with great ease and without any conflict. Personal qualities only add to the personality of a leader. It would be even proper to say that personal qualities go a long way in making a leader.

Functions of the Office Manager

Institute of Administrative Management of England in a booklet, entitled, *Guide to Effective Office Supervision*, states that there are *two broad fields of functions of the office manager*. They are:

1. *Human relations*; and 2. *Work organisation and methods*. These two principal functions relate to the following:

(*i*) **Recruitment of staff.** Office manager is entrusted with the task of recruitment of staff. In order to do this he shall determine the requirements and sources of supply; and lay down standards of testing and interviews. While making a final selection, he would be required to do quality rating in order to determine the suitability of the job to the man. Once a person is finally selected for the job, service agreement is to be prepared. Also reference given by the selected person might be approached.

(*ii*). **Training of staff.** The person selected must be fitted into the organisation structure. Necessary training, if needed, be given and the selected person must be familiarised with at least some of the tasks that he may be required to perform immediately after some basic training. The training programmes are to be devised not only for the new recruits, the old hands are to be kept in touch with the latest appliances, techniques and processes of office management. For this, suitable refresher courses might have to be devised; or refresher courses

[1]Quoted by Koontz and O'Donnell, *op. cit.*

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devised by management institutions or universities can be used.

(*iii*) **Devising methods of work measurement.** Devising methods of work measurement is a difficult thing since it would not be possible to measure, in physical terms, the output of the staff. Therefore, on the basis of accepted norms for work measurement, methods must be devised.

(*iv*) **Devising suitable compensation methods.** This is a fundamental function, Suitable methods of compensation should be devised by him which secure efficiency and cooperation of the staff.

(*v*) **Promotions.** Promotions are to be made in the office. The office manager is a key figure in this matter. He should reward staff for efficiency and is required to be above board in this. Promotion is a good way to recognise the efficiency and good work of an office worker.

(*vi*) **Leadership and morale.** More than anything else, these two are the most important functions. How can a work-force work cohesively or function without the presence of these two?

(*vii*) **Coordinating.** Coordinating the tasks of various workers in the office is essential for its existence. Office will be meaningless mass of people without coordination.

(*viii*) **Discipline.** This is also an important function. The office manager should see to it that people come in time, observe rules of telephone calls, dress, smoking and absences. If any grievances originate, they should also be eliminated without delay.

(*ix*) **Controlling stationery and supplies.** He is required to enforce proper control over stationery and supplies into the office. In large offices, there should be a separate store-keeper and normal procedure of keeping stores must be followed. Sources of supplies must be determined properly. Wherever procedures for purchases have been laid down, they should be followed. Where in the case of an item no procedure is laid-down, he should lay down a suitable procedure for its purchase. If necessary, suitable instructions be obtained from the chief executive in the matter.

(*x*) **Accounting and costing.** Where the office manager combines the duties of the accountant, his functions will include directing the accounting procedure. If also the costing section is located under his jurisdiction, he will be required to direct its activity. In many large organisations, however, these functions are independent of the routine office procedures. Office concerns itself more with the provision of secretarial and other related services.

(*xi*) **Working as secretary.** Sometimes, in a small company, the office manager is also the secretary of the company. In that case his

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duties include the duties of the company secretary. He is responsible for the maintenance of the various books and registers as required by law; he is responsible for share management and so on.

Duties of the Office Manager

In the course of his functioning the office manager has to perform a number of duties, which have been summarised under the following headings :

In relation to top management 1. He should support and implement the *policies*, *objectives*, *budgets*, etc. of top management.

2. He should *report back* since he is the keyman for the office function. Staffing problems, arrears of work, or acute work problems must be reported back immediately, so that work goes on unhindered.

3. He should cooperate with the *O.M. department*, where such department exists.

4. He should cooperate with the *outside management consultants* if they have been employed to study office procedures and systems.

In relation to the work. 1. He should see that the *work is done efficiently* as per the schedule laid down and as per the methods and systems designed. Any work problems that arise in the course of functioning of the office employees must be solved.

2. He should see to it that the *work must go on continuously* regardless of sickness, leaves, absences, etc.

3. He should exercise continuous *control* over all work and see that quality control and production control are adhered to.

4. He should see that all the *office machines* are in good working order at all times so that wastages are eliminated.

In relation to subordinates. 1. He is responsible to assess the quality of *staffing*. He should make recommendations for promotion or increased pay. He should also supervise and train staff.

2. Since *his position* is that of the man in the middle, he should recognise his duties towards the office staff. He should recognise that they perform very useful work and take personal interest in them and the work they do.

3. His subordinates consider him as the *management* and thus he should act as such. All their grievances must be redressed immediately, if they fall within his power or else there should be quick upwards communication for top managerial action. Information received from top management and meant for the staff must be communicated without delay.

In relation to associates. 1. He should cooperate with them fully to fulfil the organisational goals and objectives. If necessary, he should

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transfer the staff, if needed, so that work goes on smoothly.

2. He should aim at systems integration[1]; and office procedures and policies should have commonness with those of other departments. This would help to avoid conflicting aims of different managers.

ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE MANAGEMENT

The term administrative office management has been increasingly used in the USA although in the UK the term office management is in great usage. The two terms, as they are being used, almost mean the same thing.[2] There can, however, be no controversy excepting in a narrow way. Before we examine this problem further it would be worthwhile to examine the distinction created by Oliver Sheldon[3] between the term management and administration. He states, "Administration is the function in the industry concerned with the determination of finance, production and distribution, the settlement of the compass (structure) of the organisation under the ultimate control of the executive." According to him, management proper is the function in industry concerned in the execution of policy, within the limits set by administration and employment of the organisation for the particular objects before it. Spriegel and Lansburgh[4] also make a similar distinction between administration and management. They use the term administration as concerned with the laying down of objectives, policies and direction. The *administration concerns itself with the higher level* while *management is concerned with the execution of policies* and therefore concerns itself with the lower levels.

Let us now study the meaning of administrative office management as used by some of the American authors in the light of the distinction between administration and management as created by Sheldon and others. Littlefield and others[5] define administrative office management as "that function within the organisation with responsibility for overall operations of the organisation." In the light of this definition, it may be said that the administrative office management covers a very wide range of responsibilities and activities. Quoting Littlefield and others

[1]See the chapter on Office systems.

[2]Another term which is recommended is the information management which can be taken to be the equivalent of administrative office management. *See* Terry, *op. cit.*

[3]The first authority to do so.

[4]*Industrial Managemant*, Asian Student Edition, Asia Publising House.

[5]Littlefield, Rachel and Caruth, *Office and Administrative Management*, Prentice-Hall of India Pvt. Ltd.

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again it can be said that "administrative management is not one position, one office or one department, it is rather the totality of the management personnel operating in an administrative capacity with all the information and all the expertise needed for effective, timely and objective decisions."

Neuner and Keeling[1] discuss about the changing management problems and consequently their becoming more complex. These factors have completely changed the nature and scope of the office manager's (or office management's) responsibilities. Some of these factors are the technological changes in the office, incorporation of systems and procedures and human relations. The title "Administrative Office Manager" is being increasingly used in place of the office manager to reflect the "new status of office responsibility and to recognise the importance of the office function, new titles have come upon the scene; no longer is it possible to categorize all office executives by the title office manager. Today, among other titles, the office executive may be known as the controller, director of finances and services, manager of office services, treasurer, systems and procedures manager-director, operations manager and administrative manager."

In our own country, the growing awareness about the office function is catching due attention of the top management although it has yet to attain the status and responsibility of administrative office management in the USA or other countries. In our country the more current terms for the administrative office manager are the Commercial Executive, Commercial Officer, Administrative Officer, Administrative Manager, Office Manager and Office Controller, Director Administration, Administrative Director, etc. Many a time the Public Relations Manager or the Secretary of the company may head the office. It would, however, be ideal to classify the administrative office management function properly. In our discussion we would be using the two terms office management and administrative office management meaning the same thing. Thus the titles like the Commercial Manager, Administrative Manager, Office Manager, Administrative Office Manager, etc. mean the same thing so far as our discussion is concerned.

Responsibilities of administrative office manager. Since we are using the term administrative office manager meaning the same thing as office manager, the functions or responsibilities of the two are

[1]**Neuner, John J.W. and B. Lewis, *Modern Office Management*, Indian Edition, D. B. Taraporevala Sons & Co. Pvt Ltd.**

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similar. These functions have already been discussed in relation to the office manager in this chapter.

QUESTIONS

1. "Office management is the task of planning, coordinating and motivating the efforts of others towards the specific objectives in the office." Discuss.
2. What do you understand by the term "Office Management"? Discuss the functions of a modern office. (*Delhi B. Com., Co. Secy Prel. '80; Jammu Univ. '80*)
3. State the functions of office management.
4. What is the role of planning in relation to the office function?
5. Discuss how communication is a very important function of office management?
6. Who is an office manager? What is his position vis-a-vis the organisation? Outline his functions. State the qualities that make a good office manager.
7. What do you understand by the term administrative office management? Discuss the functions of the administrative office manager.
8. You are the Chief Executive of a medium-sized consumer durables company. You feel that it is time that you outlined the tasks, responsibilities and duties of the Manager (Administration). Prepare a draft outlining them.

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Chapter 3

OFFICE ORGANISATION

MEANING

A business enterprise can attain its objectives only when it takes systematic steps in this direction. Business activity, in other words must be well coordinated and conscious to achieve maximum output at minimum expense of resources. Cooperation of individual efforts and their use for achieving defined objectives is possible only through 'organisation'. As Lundy states, *in dynamic sense, organisation is a process of welding together a framework of positions which can be used as a management tool for the most effective pursuit of the goals of an enterprise.*

Organisation covers the whole field of relationship of various factors present in a given effort. Basically economic activity involves the use of various factors of production like land, labour, capital and enterprise. These factors are unproductive and purposeless unless they are combined effectively.

In other sense, as Koontz and O' Donnell put it, "*Essentially it is the creation and maintenance of an intentional structure of role.*" Therefore, in a narrower sense, organisation denotes the *structure of duties and activities* necessary for the conduct of a business without which a business cannot achieve its common objectives. The process of organisation is the process by which relationships are defined. The organisation structure must have the following *characteristics* imbibed in it:

(*i*) It must reflect *objectives and plans.*

(*ii*) It must reflect the *authority* available to enterprise management.

(*iii*) It must reflect its *environment.*

(*iv*) It must be manned with *trained people.*

The process of organisation has to be applied to every department of the enterprise, including the office.

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Office Organisation

The office consists of people who pursue common objectives. It is necessary that they should work cohesively and in a coordinated manner so that the work is performed smoothly and efficiently. In other words, the men and materials in the office should be put to the greatest use for pursuing the objectives of the enterprise. *Office organisation can thus be defined as the process by which a framework of positions is welded together in the office for the pursuit of the goals or objectives set forth.*

Steps in organisation. Koontz and O'Donnell state that *logical method* must be applied to the process of organisation. In order to do this, following steps in organisation must be taken:

1. Establishment of enterprise objectives.
2. Formulation of derivative objects, policies and plans.
3. Determination of activities necessary to accomplish these goals, policies and plans.
4. Enumeration and classification of these activities.
5. Grouping these activities in the light of human and material resources available and the best way of using them.
6. Delegating to the head of each group the authority necessary to perform the activities.
7. Tying these groupings together horizontally and vertically, through authority relationships and information systems.

ORGANISATION STRUCTURE

Organisation structure has two complementary *aspects*: (*i*) The *form of structure* where we can apply the "principles" of organisation. (*ii*) The *functions to be performed, i.e.*, activities to be pursued and the degree of specialisation needed for such a pursuit. A planned or an effective organisation structure defines functions, relates these functions in a systematic manner, and assigns authority and degree of responsibility for each function.

Sound organisation is essential to the existence of an enterprise or institution—economic or social. Organisation structure has human beings as links who are responsible for planning, direction, coordination and controlling, etc. Thus it is true to state that organisation is the foundation of management as well as its chief tool.

Importance of Sound Organisation Structure

Sound organisation structure is important due to the following reasons:

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1. It facilitates proper administration. If the organisation is not sound it can cause delays and failures. Wrong decisions may also be taken to the disadvantage of the enterprise.

2. It helps in growth and diversification. Delegation of authority and fixation of responsibility help control quantity and quality of output. This results in growth and diversification.

3. It stimulates initiative and creative thinking. Once specific responsibility is defined and a person has to do the work on his own, it helps him in developing his confidence and creative thinking.

4. Optimum use of technological innovations can be made. With clarity of authority relationships, best use can be made of technological innovations.

PRINCIPLES OF ORGANISATION

Modern business is complex. It is affected by a variety of components operating both inside and outside an enterprise. They throw a challenge to the enterprise. However, the success or failure of an organisation is denoted by its operating results. Success can be attained through suitable organisation. Koontz and O'Donnell[1] outline the following principles of organisation:

Principles Relating to the Purpose of Organising

1. Principle of unity of objective. Every part of the organisation, including the office, is working towards the attainment of enterprise objectives.

2. Principle of efficiency. Efficiency is a basic principle. The objectives must be attained at minimum cost to the organisation as well as to the society.

Principles Relating to the Cause of Organising

As Barnard points out each individual, department, division, or branch or section must be judged in the light how it contributes to the attainment of objectives.

Span of management principle. There is a limit to the number of persons that an individual can effectively manage. Koontz and O'Donnell state that the number of persons that a manager can manage will depend upon "his job and basic factors that influence the frequency and severity of the relationships he must supervise." The number

[1]Koontz and O'Donnell, *op. cit.*

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however, is to be determined on the basis of the various underlying factors.

Principles Relating to the Structure of Organisation Authority

1. The scalar principle. (chain of command). The chain of command must be clearly defined for sound organisation. "Every subordinate must know who his superior is and to whom policy matters beyond his own authority must be referred for decision."

2. Principle of delegation. "Authority delegated to an individual manager should be adequate to assure his ability to accomplish results expected of him."

3. Principle of responsibility. The responsibility of the subordinate to his superior for authority received by delegation is absolute, and no superior can escape the responsibility for the organisation activities of his subordinate.

4. Principle of parity of authority and responsibility. Authority and responsibility must co-exist in an organisation failing which subordinates cannot discharge their functions.

5. Principle of unity of command. Each subordinate must have one superior to whom he should be answerable. This helps in avoiding conflict in command and fixing responsibility.

6. The authority-level principle. The decisions taken by the manager within the scope of his authority cannot be referred back to higher authorities.

Principles Relating to the Structure of Organisation: Departmentised Activities

1. Principle of division of labour. Effective organisation consists of departments which reflect the most efficient breakdown of activities.

2. Principle of functional definition. The activities of each department should be clearly defined.

3. Principle of separation. If an activity is meant to have a check on a department, the individuals responsible for checking must be separated and should have no contact with that department.

Principles Relating to the Process of Organising

1. Principle of balance. "The application of principles or techniques must be balanced in the light of the over-all effectiveness of the structure in meeting enterprise objectives."

2. Principle of flexibility. The organisation must be flexible to meet the changing conditions.

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3. Principle of leadership facilitation. The organisation must be such that it should facilitate leadership abilities to attain the objectives.

TYPES OF ORGANISATION

Broadly speaking there are three types of organisation: (*i*) the Line or Military Organisation; (*ii*) the Line and Staff Organisation; and (*iii*) the Functional Organisation. An enterprise may adopt one or the other type of organisation on the basis of its needs. It may also combine more than one type of organisation if the needs of the organisation so demand. Besides the above three types of organisation, Committees are used and they are usually combined with one or the other type of organisation.

Line or Military Organisation

Meaning. It is the oldest and the simplest form of organisation which has been used in its pure form in the army not long ago. In the army, men are organised into sections, sections into platoons, platoons into companies, companies into regiments, regiments into brigades, brigades into divisions, divisions into corps, corps into commands and commands in turn form the total army. Each group or unit, whether small or big, is placed directly under a commander whose word is final to his subordinates. Even the Christian Church has followed this pattern of organisation. During the last one hundred years, the military organisation has been undergoing a radical change, especially, during the last half a century. Industry also adopted the line type of organisation. It too underwent a sea-change during the last half a century or so. The term military organisation is misleading on account of these changes.

Its characteristics and system at work. Louis A. Allen[1] remarks that "line functions are those which have direct responsibility for accomplishing the objectives of the enterprise." Koontz and O'Donnell describe line as a system "*in which a superior exercises direct supervision over a subordinate—an authority relationship in direct line or steps.*" The *features* of this system may be noted:

1. The line of *authority is straight and vertical.*
2. In the pure line organisation, *divisions exist for control and direction* and each man at the same level performs the same functions.

[1]Allen, Louis A., *Management and Organisation*, McGraw-Hill Book Company Inc., International Student Edition.

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3. In the department line organisation, the *chief executive leads the whole organisation.* The business unit is divided into a number of departments and each department is headed by the departmental executive or head. The chief executive (the general manager or managing director or director-in-charge) issues orders to the departmental heads who in turn transmit them to their subordinates. These subordinates pass on these orders to the workers. Heads of different departments enjoy equal status, and are independent of each other, *i.e.*, they do not issue or receive orders from each other. For example, the foreman in an industrial unit neither issues any instructions nor receives them from another foreman in the same unit. Similarly a supervisor in the office is not commanded by another supervisor. The foreman in the factory performs various functions connected with production like planning of work, ensuring smooth functioning of machines, training of workers and instructing them in the methods of work. Besides, promotion of workers depends on the reports prepared by their respective foremen. Foreman is the immediate boss of the workers under him and they look to him for all their problems. They can approach higher officers only through their immediate boss. Similarly the supervisor in the office performs the functions of training and instructing his subordinates, he prepares their performance reports and they look to him for guidance and the solution of their problems. He is their immediate boss.

Chart Showing Line Organisation

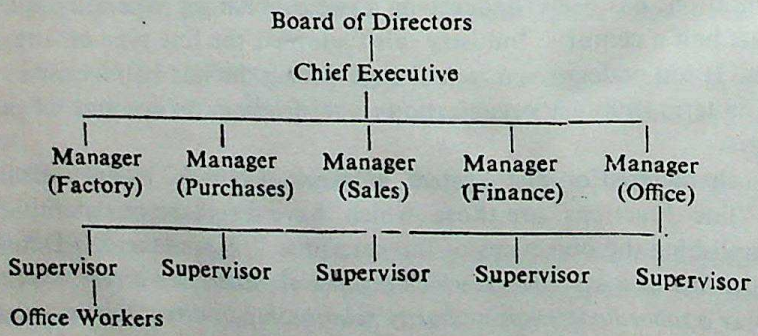

FIG. 3.1. Line Organisation.

Note. There shall also be various sub-divisions or sections in other departments.

Prof. Sargant Florence states *three principles* which must be observed in order to obtain advantages of the system. They are:

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(*i*) Only immediate supervisors should issue the commands to subordinates; (*ii*) Only one superior should issue commands; (*iii*) The number of persons whose work is directly commanded by superior must be limited.

Merits. It offers the following unique advantages:

1. *Simplicity.* It is easy to establish and simple to explain to subordinates.
2. *Unity of control.* There is unity of control and thus the scalar principle of organisation is observed.
3. *Better discipline.* The system ensures good discipline because of unified control. The subordinates know the one person who commands them and they will do their best to satisfy his demands.
4. *Fixed responsibility.* There is well-defined and fixed responsibility.
5. *Flexibility.* The system is flexible because each executive enjoys freedom within the defined sphere and, therefore, can adjust organisation to the changing needs.
6. *Prompt decisions.* Prompt decisions are possible because of fixed responsibility and unity of control.

Demerits. The system has its own drawbacks due to the character of the system and also due to human failings. They are:

1. *Lack of specialisation.* Modern business is complex due to size and changing economic conditions and technological innovations. To meet the challenge of complexity, specialists are to be employed. The line system, however, does not employ specialists.
2. *Overloading or over-reliance.* One person is responsible for all types of work in a department. Thus the efficiency of the whole of the department depends almost entirely on the quality of the man who heads the department.
3. *Inadequate communication.* Often correct information is not received. Also there is hardly any communication from the lower ranks to the higher ranks. It means that if officers make wrong decisions they will be carried out to the detriment of the organisation.
4. *Favouritism.* Since one man decides the issue of efficiency of individuals working under him, favouritism may result. Even if he is impartial he may not be rational because of his notions and lack of understanding; and thus the morale of the workers may be low.

The line organisation is primarily based upon the principle of unity

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of command and scalar principle. It becomes unsuitable for a large organisation where specialisation assumes greater importance than more adherence to the principle of unity of command. We can, therefore, remark that *the line organisation is ideal only for small organisations.*

The Line and Staff System

The line system overconcentrates control while functionalisation overdivides it. Therefore, there is the need for striking a balance between the two systems. This has been achieved by the line and staff system of organisation. The concept was first applied in the army. The field commanders have a staff to apprise them about the enemy, his strength, tactics and over all strategy. The staff, in the light of various factors, makes suggestions regarding plans of defence or attack or strategy. In a business enterprise, a manager cannot think of all the possible factors that affect its functioning. Thus he has a team of experts to advise him on various aspects of business. These experts analyse problems and put forth suggestions which may be implemented by the manager. The manager has to take decision of implementation himself. In either situation, whether he implements the suggestions or not, he remains responsible for performance.

Nature of line and staff relationships. According to Koontz and O'Donnell and some other leading theorists and practitioners of management, the concept of line and staff is that they are a matter of relationships. Mooney states that gradation of authority is to be found in all organisations. In other words hierarchical arrangement (line system) or scalar principle in organisation must exist. The nature of staff relationship is advisory. Mooney states further that staff is auxiliary. However, he points out that "the structure of organisation is single track only, and can never be anything else . . . every staff function must adhere to the line in some dependent relation, and could not otherwise exist."

Let us take an example to clear our concept. There is an electronics company, Works Manager incharge of production, Marketing Manager Finance Manager and Office Manager can be called as line officials and their departments are line departments. Personnel management, quality control and accounting, etc., can be described as staff functions.

Types of staff functions. Staff functions can be divided into two parts: (*i*) *Staff advice* and (*ii*) *Staff service.* Staff advice relates to staff functions at the higher levels while the staff services relate to staff functions at the lower levels where specialised services exist for the workers in achieving the targets assigned. Following diagram illus-

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trates the point with reference to the office.

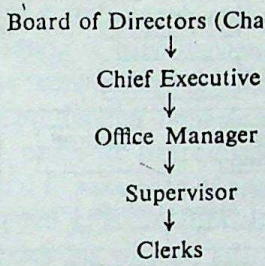

FIG. 3.2. A Line Organisation.

Some functions are line in one company, staff in another. Louis A. Allen[1] points out that some line functions in one company are staff functions in another and viceversa. He gives a number of examples to this effect. Research is line function in some companies, staff in others. In most companies research is a staff function necessary to suggest improvements in design, etc. However, certain companies regard research very important and equal in importance with sales and manufacturing in achieving its objectives. Similarly in hire-purchase companies, accounting and office are a line function while they are a staff function in many other types of companies.

Some functions are line and staff in the same company. For instance in a decentralised business, the chief executive officer may need specialists in sales and production to advise him on matters of overall planning, policy-making and control. Therefore, sales and production are specialised staff departments at the corporate level. However, within the operating divisions of the same company, sales department is responsible for marketing and distributing the product; and production in the plants remains a line function at the operating levels.

Type of Staff. 1. *General staff.* Such a staff is located at the headquarters or at the corporate level to assist and advise top management on problems faced by the company in general and shared by different divisions.

2. *Specialised staff.* It refers to an arrangement where each line official has a personal assistant or adviser. These personal assistants provide advice and services to the line executives with whom they are attached.

Merits. (*i*) *Expert advice* becomes available to the line management. (*ii*) There is the benefit of *planned specialisation.*

[1]Allen, Louis A., *op. cit.*

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(*iii*) Line managers get more time to devote to their line function. This results in *greater efficiency.*

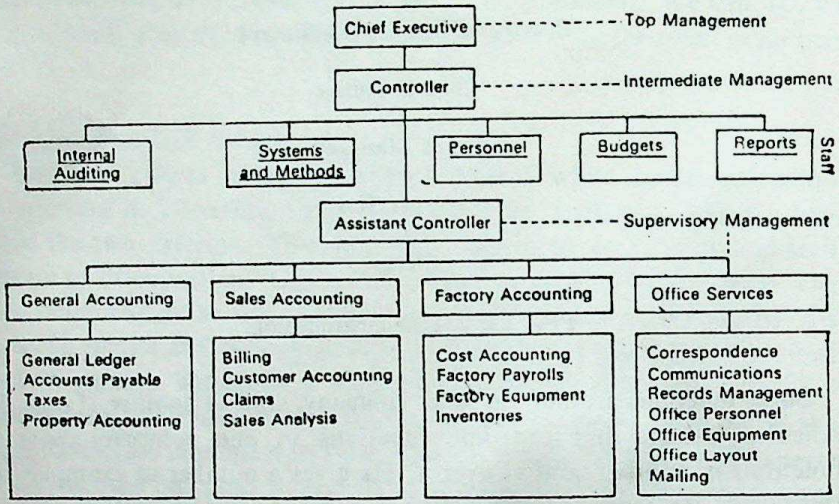

FIG. 3 3. Line-and-Staff Organisation of a Large Company.

Note. Staff positions are underlined.

(*iv*) *Chances of advancement* of employees become better as more jobs become available.

Demerits. (*i*) Staff tends to assume line authority and thus it is a cause of *friction* between the two.

(*ii*) Sometimes *staff does not give sound advice* because the staff is not responsible for the results of implementation of the advice.

(*iii*) *Staff steals credit.* It is so where results are obtained through sheer hard work and intelligence of the line.

(*iv*) *Staff fails to see the whole picture.* Quite often the staff fails to relate the advice to the task of line and the objectives of the enterprise.

The Functional System

Functionalism has been advocated by Taylor and others who support his views on what we know as Scientific Management. The functional system can be defined as *a system of organisation in which functional departments are created at the factory, office, unit or enterprise level to deal with the problems of business at each successive level.* In other words, the specialist services or functions are concentrated at the top but every department and every section makes use of these services. The management is divided into a number of

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functions like purchasing, selling, production, research and development, financing, office management and personnel, etc. The problems of finance and accounting of each department are the responsibility of the finance and those concerning production and engineering are the responsibility of the production department, etc.

Pre-requisites. In order to introduce a functional department in the office it is essential to take care of the following:

(*i*) Only inter-related jobs are allotted to one department.

(*ii*) All activity must be divided into functions carefully and then allotted to functional departments.

(*iii*) There should be no duplication, i.e., activity allotted to one department cannot be allotted to another.

Functional Organisation Chart

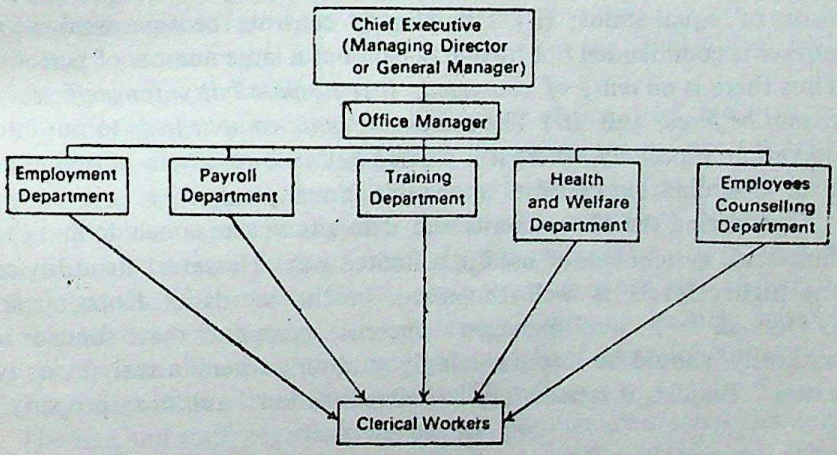

FIG. 3.4. Functional Organisation applied to the Office.

The above chart shows the concept of functional organisation as applied to office organisation. Certain specialists can be employed whose services are made available to different sections or departments.

Functional organisation or functional authority at the higher levels. It is quite common for large organisations that some operating departments often control some method of process of line department. Thus a subordinate working anywhere in the organisation is commanded directly by a number of managers who exercise direct functional authority over him. Similar activities are grouped into various functional departments for this purpose.

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Merits. (*i*) *Better division of labour* takes place which results in specialisation of functions and its consequent benefits; (*ii*) It *separates manual and mental functions;* (*iii*) *Greater efficiency* is ensured as every person performs a limited number of functions or operations; and (*iv*) Specialisation coupled with standardisation *facilitates mass production.*

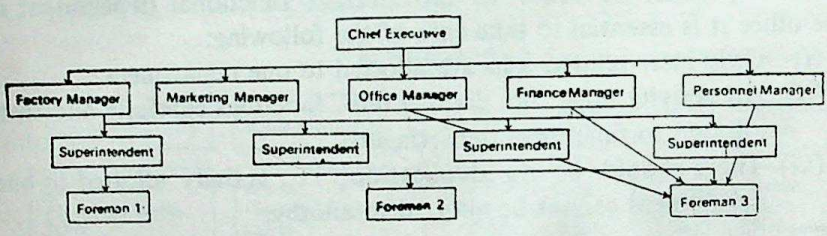

FIG. 3.5. Chart showing Functional Authority.

Demerits. (*i*) The system leads to *conflict* among foremen or supervisors of equal status; (*ii*) Disciplinary controls become weak as a worker is commanded not by one person but a large number of persons. Thus there is *no unity of command;* (*iii*) *Responsibility for inefficiency cannot be fixed;* and (*iv*) The *system is quite complicated* to put into operation, especially, where it is carried out at lower levels of organisation. Coordination becomes impossible in many cases.

Considering the above merits and demerits we can conclude that the functional system can be used in a limited way. However, its utility at the higher levels is well-recognised. In the words of Koontz and O'Donnell " . . . well managed concerns recognise that functional authority should be used sparingly and only where a real necessity exists." Besides, it is necessary to define functional authority properly.

Distinction Between Line and Line and Staff Organisation

Following are the points of distinction between these two types of organisations:

1. Scalar principle. In line system, the superior exercises direct supervision over subordinate. On the other hand, as Mooney points out, in line and staff system although the "structure of organisation is single track only" yet some individuals in no way command any person even when they are sufficiently highly placed in the structure.

2. Independence. Line can exist independently of any other system. Line and staff system leans heavily on line system for existence.

3. Element of specialisation. In line system, specialisation, as it exists in line and staff system, is altogether missing.

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4. Relations. In staff departments, line relations exist within such departments; but in line system staff relations can be absent.

5. Necessity. Considering today's economic conditions, line and staff system is essential for a large organisation but small firm employs the line system only.

Distinction Between the Functional and Line and Staff System

Following is the distinction between these two types of organisation:

1. Functional managers enjoy complete authority in their areas in functional system, which is not enjoyed by specialists in line and staff system.
2. In functional system, the lines of authority become diagonal; but in the line and staff system, lines of authority are vertical as well as horizontal.
3. Principal of unity of command is not followed in functional organisation, but it forms the basis of the other system.
4. All departments in functional system have an equal status, but it is not so in line and staff system.

Considering the definitions and differences of line and staff organisations vis-a-vis the line and functional organisations, we can say that the line and staff system combines the good features of both the other types. The line system completely ignores the specialists who are so essential due to the following factors: (*i*) size of business, (*ii*) economic dynamics, and (*iii*) to allow line to concentrate on work and relieve it of the burden of thinking. The functional system similarly ignores certain aspects like the following: (*i*) principle of unity of command, and (*ii*) distinction between line and staff functions.

The line and staff organisation has the peculiar characteristics and thus the advantage of combining line and functional systems. The specialists get employed and the scalar principle is also observed resulting in unity of command for work to be done. However, to achieve the benefits of the line and functional systems, the line and staff system must incorporate the following suggestions:

1. The organisation must operate in terms of objectives and policies.
2. Line must be educated to use functional departments properly.
3. The line must overcome the resistance to changes suggested by the functional departments.
4. The functional departments, in order to command respect, must be extremely proficient.
5. The line must keep the functional departments informed about their difficulties and changes.

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6 The line must also make proper use of the functional departments.

SPAN OF CONTROL OR MANAGEMENT

Span of control forms an integral part of an organisation structure of an enterprise. As the organisation structure gets enlarged and many levels get created, delegation and decentralisation take place. Although the delegation and decentralisation relieve executives and place responsibility for decision-making on subordinates, yet they create problems of control of subordinates. The work of subordinates is to be supervised and co-ordinated. This can be identified as the problem of control. Therefore in every organization it must be decided how many subordinates a superior can manage.. This is the focal point of span of control (as also called span of supervision/direction/management). In fact, span of control refers to the numbers of subordinates a manager can effectively manage.

Factors Affecting Span

An ideal number of subordinates to be supervised shall be one where the efficiency in terms of supervision is the greatest. There cannot be any arithmetical number which can be fixed as the ideal number for span purposes. Following factors influence the span of control;

(*i*) Well-programmed *plans* increase the span.
(*ii*) Greater rate of *change* reduces the span.
(*iii*) Use of objective *standards* increases the span.
(*iv*) Better *training* of subordinates increases the span in long-run.
(*v*) Proper *delegation* of authority increases span.
(*vi*) Better and effective use of *communication* techniques improves span of management.
(*vii*) Where *face-to-face relationships* must exist, span gets reduced.

Limitations

Among the limitations affecting the span of management, Koontz and O'Donnell list out the following "spans" which effect the span of management:

(*i*) **Time and attention spans.** Time is precious and attention has its physiological limitations. Thus the two favour a smaller span of control.

(*ii*) **Personality and energy spans.** The two factors relate to individual managers. Manager with more of them can command a large number of subordinates.

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(*iii*) **Span of knowledge.** Span of knowledge is limited and places a limit on the span of control but it does not mean that span need be very small. The basic function of management is to get things done through others. Therefore, it is not necessary that a superior should have detailed knowledge of all activities under his control.

Problem of Proper Span of Control

Problem of the ideal number. It is difficult to determine the exact number of subordinates that a superior should command directly. Lyndall Urwick found the ideal number to be four at the higher level and at the lowest level at eight to twelve. Sir Ian Hamilton suggests the number between three at the highest level and six at the lowest level. There are some others who feel that this number could be twenty to thirty. In actual practice, the number varies from organisation to organisation. In a survey of a hundred large companies in the USA made by the American Management Association in 1951, it was found that the number of persons reporting to the Presidents (chief executives) varied from one to twenty and only twenty six of these Presidents had as few as six or less subordinates. White[1] arrived at a similar conclusion in 1963. Fisch writing in "Harvard Business Review" discovered in 1962 that in large companies the span at the top was more than twelve. However, no definite conclusion can be drawn with mathematical precision.

Problems with levels. To achieve efficiency, specialisation, proper control, and especially proper span, levels are to be created so that span of control is not unwieldy. But creation of so many layers or levels in the organisation structure creates some problems:

(*i*) Levels are expensive in terms of money and effort,
(*ii*) Many levels also complicate communication and,
(*iii*) They also create complications in planning and control

Wide versus narrow spans. Levels and spans are interrelated. As the number of levels increases, the span becomes narrower and narrower. Increasing number of levels result narrower spans.

(*i*) complexity and loss of managerial efficiency because the line of command becomes too long,
(*ii*) loss in morale because people at the lower levels feel too for away from the top, and
(*iii*) lack of development of self-reliance and initiative on the part of the employee at the lowest level of pyramid.

[1]K.K. White, Understanding the Company Organisation Chart. (New York; American Management Association).

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Remedy and the Need for Balance

The real remedy lies in balancing of all factors. Widening spans and reducing levels may be the answers in some cases while the reverse may be needed in others. To sum up, Koontz and O'Donnell are quoted who say, "One must balance all the costs of adopting one course or the other—not only the financial costs but costs in morale, personal development and the attainment of enterprise objective—in short all the advantages and disadvantages. . . . The correct principle of span of management is that there is a limit in each managerial position to the number of persons an individual can effectively manage, but the exact number in each case will vary in accordance with the effect of underlying variables and their impact on the time requirements of effective managing."

COMMITTEES

Meaning

Use of committees has become wide-spread in all spheres of economic, social and political life. In business, it is a common phenomenon. Newman[1] defines it as a group of people specifically designated to perform some administrative act. It functions only as a group and requires the free-inter-change of ideas among its members. Louis A. Allen[2] states, "A committee is a body of persons appointed or elected to meet on an organized basis for the consideration of matters brought before it." In brief, *a committee is a group of persons performing a group task with the object of solving inter-dependent problems.* Business today is a complicated affair. Production must be geared to sales and sales policy must take into account the financial constraints and the services provided by the office. If production is more and sales are less, inventories will pile up. Also sales may suggest a change in design which is not taken into account by production, the result will be piling up of unsold stocks. In the office, for example, piling up of arrears may point towards a revision of office systems or introduction of machines to cope up with the increased work-load. Thus to overcome such difficulties, it is essential to form committees of different departmental managers whose activities are to be coordinated. The committee should be presided over by the chief executive where it is intended to coordinate activities at the higher level. There may be some committees which may be presided over by the departmental

[1]Newman, W.N., *Administrative Action*, Prentice-Hall Inc.
[2]*Ibid.*

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heads where ready coordination is needed within the department, for example, in the case of a committee appointed to plan office systems, the Office Manager may lead the committee.

Objects

The objects of committees, whether at the corporate level or at the office level, are summarised thus:

(*i*) *To consult various managers*, executives or supervisors and secure their viewpoint on different aspects of business.

(*ii*) *To secure cooperation of departments*, divisions, sections.

(*iii*) *To harmonise the efforts of the staff and line executives.*

Types of Committees

On the basis of time. (*i*) *Permanent committees* which are permanent in existence in the organisation. (*ii*) *Temporary Committees* which are formed to meet specific situations.

On the basis of functions. (*i*) *Managerial committees* are those which undertake managerial functions. (*ii*) *Non-managerial committees* are those which do not undertake managerial functions.

On the basis of character. (*i*) *Line committees* have the authority of decision-making affecting subordinates responsible for it. (*ii*) *Staff committees* are those whose relationship to a superior is advisory.

On the basis of structure. (*i*) *Formal committees* are those which have been established as a part of organisation structure with specially delegated duties and authority. (*ii*) *Informal committees* are those which do not form a part of organisation structure and are without specific delegation of authority.

When Should Committees be Used?

Following situations call for the use of committees: (*i*) *Need for pooled knowledge and judgement.* Pooled knowledge and proper judgment of a business required to meet complex situations force it to make use of committees. (*ii*) *Fear of authority.* Too much authority cannot be delegated to a single individual, therefore, committees are used. (*iii*) *Representation of interested groups.* Committees are to be constituted to reflect the opinions of various interested groups, for example, a board of directors consists of various interest groups. (*iv*) *Coordination of plans and policies.* Since plans and policies are to be coordinated, committees prove necessary. (*v*) *Transmission of Information.* Need for quick transmission of information forces a business to make use of committees. (*vi*) *Consolidation of authority to do certain things.* The committees are, therefore, formed to take care of

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this difficulty and provide management with the necessary help to carry out plans and policies. (*vii*) *Motivation through participation.* Where wider participation of managers is needed, committees are formed to motivate managers. (*viii*) *Avoidance of action.* Sometimes committees are formed by managers to avoid action. (*ix*) *Blurring responsibility.* In some cases it is desirable that a committee should have responsibility for actions for which individuals do not wish to be responsible, *e.g.*, in the matter of dismissals, etc.

Advantages of Committees

Committees are quite popular in business due to their following advantages: (*i*) Pooled knowledge and judgment become available to the business and thus its *efficiency* increases. (*ii*) *Better coordination* is secured as the participating managers become more aware of the problems faced by business. (*iii*) *Better cooperation of managers* is also secured since they get committed to the guidelines and decisions of the committees. (*iv*) *Dispersal of authority* becomes possible and too much concentration of power at one point is avoided. (*v*) Committees *motivate managers better* since they occupy positions of prestige on committees. (*vi*) *Better communication* is also ensured as decisions taken in committees get transmitted quickly due to the presence of executives who are supposed to get information in due course of time. (*vii*) Since committees blur responsibility, an individual executive is not accused of taking *unpleasant decisions*, the responsibility for which is shared by all members. (*viii*) Through brainstorming and group activities, committees often produce *creative ideas* which can be very useful to the whole of the organisation.

Disadvantages of Committees

Use of committees is full of *dangers* of the following types: (*i*) They *cost money and time.* The time of executives is precious and they also cost a great deal to the organisation. (*ii*) Difficulty in reaching agreement results in *indecision.* (*iii*) They often *cease to work as groups*, especially, if they are packed with yes-men or weak executives. (*iv*) They often result in *splitting of authority* because the individual in a group does not feel the same kind of responsibility that he may feel otherwise. (*v*) *Compromise at the cost of efficiency* is often affected. (*vi*) *Minority tyranny* is usually the result. A leader of a small pressure group is able to force decisions over a reluctant and weak majority. (*vii*) Some committees are *self-perpetuating* since they have assembled their own staff and are reluctant to dismiss this staff. (*viii*) Sometimes a decision of a committee, though sound, is *watered down* simply

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because most people do not like the decision.

How to make Committees Successful?

However, a committee in the office can be very useful provided the following is done:

(*i*) It should have a clearly stated *authority* so that conflicts are avoided. (*ii*) It should have a *clearly stated purpose* (*iii*) *Selection of members* should be done with great care (*iv*) The *role of the chairman* should be properly understood by him. (*v*) The committee should be of *proper size*. (*vi*) There should be *adequate preparation* for the committee meeting. (*vii*) *Logical procedure* should be followed in conducting meeting. (*viii*) *Adequate follow-up* is necessary. (*ix*) *Constant evaluation* of the work of the committees should be done. (*x*) Once the purpose of a committee has been achieved it must be *disbanded.*

QUESTIONS

1. What is office organisation? State briefly the principles of organisation. Outline the steps in organisation.
2. Explain the term 'organisation structure'. What is the importance of a sound organisation structure?
3. What is the line type of organisation? Discuss its characteristic features, merits and demerits.
4. What is the line and staff system of organisation? Do you feel that this system is an improvement over the pure line system? State the advantages and disadvantages of this system.
5. What do you understand by the functional type of organisation? How is it different from the line and staff system of organisation? State the merits and limitations of functional organisation.
6. What is organisation? What are the different types of organisations?
7. When should committees be used? What are the merits and drawbacks of using committees in the office? How can committees be made successful?
8. You are the Administrative Manager of a large multinational producing power generation machinery. For sometime past, the Board of your company have been feeling that there is need for functional authority at the top as well as middle levels. You are a part of the top level managerial cadre. Make useful suggestions.
9. What is span of management? Discuss the factors affecting it.
10. Is there an ideal number for the span of control? Discuss the problem of wide versus narrow span. State the need for balance in levels and spans.

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Chapter 4

DELEGATION OF AUTHORITY AND DEPARTMENTATION

PROCESS OF DELEGATION

TWO basic concepts of management are 'Authority' and 'Responsibility'. They can be described as essentials of the process of delegation since the process of delegation involves the following actions on the part of the managers: (*i*) *assigning duties to subordinates;* (*ii*) *delegating the required authority to the subordinates* to enable them to discharge the duties assigned to them; and (*iii*) the *assumption of the responsibility by the subordinates* for the work delegated to them. Thus in order to understand the process of delegation properly, it is necessary to understand the two concepts of authority and responsibility.

Authority

"Authority is the key to the management job. Since managers whether in the office or elesewhere, must work through people to get things done, management theory is necessarily concerned with a complex of superior-subordinate relationships and is therefore founded on the concept of authority." Louis A. Allen[1] describes authority as "the sum of the powers and rights entrusted to make possible the performance of the work delegated. Batty[2] assigns a similar meaning to authority. According to him: "Authority is the right to give orders and expected to see them obeyed." Koontz and O'Donnell accept the standard definition of authority as legal or rightful power, a right to command or to act. They say further, "Applied to the managerial job, authority is the power to command others, to act or not to act in a manner deemed by the possessor of the authority to further enterprise or departmental purpose."

[1]Allen, Louis A., *op. cit.*

[2]Batty, J., *Industrial Administration and Management*, The English Language Book Society and Macdonald and Evans Ltd., London.

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Different types of authority. Newman[1] assigns different meanings to authority and classifies it as follows: (*i*) *Legal authority*, i.e., whether an individual is legally permitted to take an action or not. (*ii*) *Technical authority*, i.e., a person is recognised as an expert in a particular field, for example, we use the terms an authority on banking, an authority on office systems, an authority on aircraft designing, etc. "This recognition of one's opinion may be called technical authority." (*iii*) *Ultimate authority*, i.e., it is an authority that deals with the original source from which one derives the right to take certain actions. (*iv*) *Operational authority*. To carry out the work, "the executive making the delegation is himself authorised to take such action, he merely extends this permission to people working for him."

Source of authority. There is disagreement in the field of management as to the source of authority. The experts are mainly divided into two camps—some believing in the *formal authority theory* and others believing in the *acceptance theory*.

The formal authority theory. Every society has its own constitution and laws; and social, religious and economic institutions. The Government has been the instrument in regulating the conduct of the corporate and non-corporate enterprises. Social, religious and economic institutions also exercise their pressure on these enterprises. The origin of authority then; whether in economic institutions or social institutions, may be traced to the elements of basic group behaviour. As these elements of group behaviour change, the different institutions also go on changing. Barnard[2] states that the concept of authority as being power transmitted from basic social institutions to individual managers of enterprises can be called "formal authority."

The acceptance of authority theory. The acceptance theory of authority is based on the notion that the real source of managerial authority is acceptance by subordinates of the power of the manager. Barnard argues that " . . . the necessity of assent of the individual to establish authority for him is inescapable." He states that a subordinate will accept the authority of a command if he understands it, if he believes that it is in his own best interests. Besides, he must be mentally and physically able to comply with it.

Criticism of acceptance theory. The acceptance theory has been criticised on many grounds, chief of which are: (*i*) Since the executive holds the power to "fire" his subordinates, the *theory is unreal.* How can a subordinate refuse to act in the face of the threat of "dismissal"

[1]Newman, *op. cit.*

[2]Barnard, C.I., *The Functions of the Executive*, Cambridge Mass: Harvard University Press, 1938.

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if he refuses to obey, (*ii*) Moreover as Koontz and O'Donnell point out "the implications of the theory are serious for the continuation of order in organisation." The workers may obey him or disobey him. Thus so long as he is not obeyed, he does not know his authority. In other words, *order in organised behaviour may not be achieved.* (*iii*) *The acceptance theory overlooks the powerful effect of social institutions on* the business enterprises because social institutions supersede individual desires (*iv*) Koontz and O'Donnell point out that the advocates of the acceptance theory are *concentrating on the problem of leadership.* However, leadership, as well as authority, is essential to managers. (*v*) Its real drawback is that the theory completely *fails to explain the source of authority* to accomplish the ends of the organisation.

The competence theory. Closely related to the acceptance theory is the competence theory. *It is the theory that accepts the belief that authority is generated by personal qualities of technical competence.* The competence theory lays stress on the fact that a particular individual by sheer force of his competence makes subordinates of others, for example, an economist or an engineer furnishes sound advice. These people may have no actual authority, yet their advice is sought and followed.

Limits of authority. There are limits of authority as illustrated by the following factors:

(*i*) *The generality of the right to command decreases as it proceeds from the highest to the lowest echelon of an organisation.* In other words, the executive at the lowest level has the least authority but as one moves to the higher levels of organisation, the area of authority goes on increasing at each successive higher level till we reach the top of the organisation structure where the authority is the greatest. (*ii*) The changing group behaviour implies that the *power of authority is never absolute.* The power of an executive is always limited by the mores of his subordinates (*iii*) There are also biological limitations placed on authority by the fact that human beings do not have the capacity to do certain things. (*iv*) *Technological and economic limitations* on authority are real. If a certain action is not feasible technologically, it cannot be supported. Similarly, for example, economic limitation in the nature of the price of a rival product is important. (*v*) Limitation on authority is many a time *the result of diverse and complex limitations* upon executive authority. For example, the objects as contained in the memorandum of a company cannot be changed at will. (*vi*) There are *specific limitations,* ordinarily found in the delegation of authority and assignment of duties in the case of each manager. For example, the office manager may not be delegated

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with the power to negotiate for the purchase of a computer system.

Responsibility

Responsibility is another part of the process of delegation. The term responsibility can be equated with duty, activity or authority. It is with authority that it is linked. Talking about responsibility, Allen[1] states, "Responsibility is the work assigned to a position. Responsibility refers to the mental and physical activities which must be performed to carry out a task or duty." Koontz and O'Donnell talk about responsibility in these words: "Viewed internally with respect to the enterprise, responsibility may be defined as the obligation of a subordinate, to whom a duty has been assigned, to perform the duty." According to them, therefore, *the essence of responsibility is thus obligation.*

The responsibility (or obligation) arises from the superior-subordinate relationship whereby a superior commands over his subordinate. In other words, "the authority flows from the superior to the subordinate manager when duties are assigned; and responsibility is the obligation simultaneously exacted from the subordinate for the accomplishment of these duties." Responsibility is of two types, when viewed in terms of time or action. Obligation may be a single action obligation or it may be a continuing obligation. The relationship between the managing director and the office manager is an example of continuing obligation.

Responsibility and accountability. Some writers create a distinction between responsibility and accountability. In fact some of the leading American corporations have started distinguishing between responsibility and accountability. They use the term accountability in the sense of an obligation. For example, accountability has been defined by the Standard Oil Company of California[2] as *the obligation of an individual to render an account of the fulfilment of his responsibilities to the principal to whom he reports.* Thus accountability indicates the proper discharge of duties by the subordinate. However, we would use the term responsibility as meaning accountability.

DELEGATION OF AUTHORITY

Delegation of authority can be described as key to organisation. As an enterprise expands and the work of an executive increases it be-

[1] Allen, Louis A., *op. cit.*
[2] Quoted by Louis A. Allen, *op, cit.*

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comes necessary to divide the work among his subordinates. Each of the subordinates is expected to carry out the job well keeping in view the objectives of the enterprise. Delegation, in simple words, is *the process of division of work whereby the subordinates are entrusted with part of the work.* Louis A. Allen talks about it as "the ability to get result through others." He further states, "It is the dynamics of management; it is the process a manager follows in dividing the work assigned to him so that he performs that part which only he, because of his unique organisational placement, can perform effectively, and so that he can get others to help him with what remains." As an enterprise develops its work has to be divided into a series of positions and these positions are to be tied together. Koontz and O'Donnell describe it as the cement that binds the organisation together.

Importance of Delegation

Delegation helps to achieve the following:

(*i*) **Distribution of work-load.** It enables the managers to distribute their work-load. Thus they become free to concentrate on their management functions.

(*ii*) **Influences subordinate performance.** It influences the relationship between the superior and the subordinate and therefore influences the performance of the subordinate. He can act more decisively since he knows his area of responsibility.

(*iii*) **Helps in expansion of the firm.** It allows the firm to expand. It is only through delegation that a firm can expand and reap the benefits of scale.

Elements of Delegation

Newman[1] states that the process of delegation, express or implied, involves the following *three aspects*:

(*i*) "The *assignment of duties by an executive* to his immediate subordinates." Duties can be expressed either (*a*) in terms of objectives, or (*b*) in terms of functions. It would be much better to assign duties on the basis of objectives because then only a man can act.

(*ii*) "The *granting of permission* (authority) to make commitments, use resources, and take other actions necessary to perform the duties." Reference to the term authority here is in the sense of administrative authority which can be described as "the power to command others" or what Mooney calls "the supreme coordinating power." It consists of permission granted to others to perform dutics and attain objectives.

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(*iii*) "The *creation of an obligation* (responsibility) on the part of each subordinate to the executive for the satisfactory performance of the duties." Delegation involves the process of acceptance of responsibility or obligation to perform duties in terms of tasks. The subordinate becomes answerable to the delegator or superior for the assigned task.

Clarity of Delegation

Clarity of delegation is essential for the proper functioning not only of the office but also of the organisation as a whole. This can be achieved by specific written delegation. In this way the delegator and the delegant avoid conflict. Written delegation makes subordinate responsible for delegated task. However, inflexibility of specific delegations must be avoided. This can be done by developing a tradition of flexibility in the organisation.

Principles of Delegation

Koontz and O'Donnell[1] state the following principles as guides to delegation of authority:

1. Principle of functional definition. Proper functional definition is necessary for delegation. Although it is a very difficult task, yet it is basic to delegation. Clear definitions of objectives, activities, organisation authority delegated, and authority are necessary for departmentation and coordination of all activity in an organisation.

2. Scalar principle. "A clear understanding of the scalar principle is necessary for proper organisation functioning. Every subordinate must know who delegates authority to him, and to whom matters beyond his own authority must be referred."

3. Authority-level principle. Functional definition plus the scalar principle result in authority-level principle. Simply stated this principle implies that only decisions which cannot be made at a given level should be referred upward. But to achieve this, delegations must be clear and the subordinate understands them.

4. Principle of unity of command. Power over a particular activity should flow from a single superior. "An obligation is essentially personal, and authority delegation by more than one person is likely to result in conflicts in both authority and responsibility. Moreover, unless a manager has total authority to hold his subordinate responsible, his position becomes undermined." However, there may be certain inevitable instances where a subordinate receives instructions from more

[1]Koontz and O'Donnell *op. cit.*

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than one individual. But such instances are rare and should be avoided.

5. Principle of delegation by results expected. "Since authority is intended to furnish managers with a tool for so managing as to gain contributions to enterprise objectives, authority delegated to an individual manager should be adequate to assure his ability to accomplish the results expected of him." But delegation by results implies that goals are defined, plans are made, they have been understood; and jobs have been set up to fit in with them.

6. Principle of absoluteness of responsibility. Once a subordinate has accepted an assignment and the power to carry out, his responsibility to the superior is absolute.

7. Principle of parity of authority and responsibility. "Authority is the power to carry out assignments and responsibility is the obligation to accomplish them, it logically follows that the authority needed to do this should correspond to the responsibility."

DECENTRALISATION AND CENTRALISATION OF AUTHORITY

Decentralisation and centralisation are the qualities that make up authority. Thus the two are closely connected with the delegation of authority. Centralisation can be defined as a process by which authority is withheld, or in other words, centralisation refers to the concentration of decision-making. Decentralisation is again closely linked with the delegation of authority. Decentralisation is a philosophy of organisation and management and implies the selective dispersal and concentration of authority. Ernest Dale[1], a leading authority on management, defines it thus: "*The term itself means the delegation of business decisions by their owners to their immediate representatives* (the board of directors and the chief executive), and then others further down in the management hierarchy. This is done with the aim of furthering the objectives and values of the enterprise; hence decentralisation is only a means to an end."

Why Decentralisation of Authority?

Decentralisation of authority has become a necessary part of the delegation process in an organisation. The need for decentralisation of authority arises on account of the following factors:

(*i*) **Need for co-ordination.** People in the organisation responsible

[1]Ernest Dale, *Advanced Management*.

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for coordination must have the requisite authority. Hence the need for decentralisation.

(*ii*) **Need for trained managers.** Trained managers are needed throughout a society. Decentralisation is the means to train them to take up managerial challenges independently.

(*iii*) **Large size of the organisation.** Larger the size of the organisation, greater is the need for decentralisation. Centralisation would only delay decisions and their implementation. Talking about this problem Newman and Logan[1] remark that this results in "the difficulty of transmitting ideas from the board of directors to the rank and file employee, and vice versa . . . ." Thus decentralisation is a necessity without which large organisations cannot hope to function.

Distinction Between Decentralisation of Authority and Decentralisation of Processes

Decentralisation of authority is different from the decentralisation of processes or activities. Mere division of work into so many activities or departments may not mean decentralisation of authority. It may be a convenient way to carry out a task while authority may remain highly centralised. On the other hand, a highly centralised set-up might have great decentralisation of authority and the executives at different levels enjoy authority to complete their tasks independently.

Factors Affecting Decentralisation

The degree of decentralisation is affected by the following factors:

1. Costliness of the decision. The general principle is that more costly the action to be decided upon, the more probable it is that the decision will be made at the upper levels of management. The cost may be in money, reputation, employee morale or competitive terms. However, in a large organisation, decentralisation is greater but still certain vital functions like financial planning may be reserved for the top.

2. Uniformity of policy. Decentralisation is essential for having uniformity of policy. For example, there is the desire to treat every customer equally well regarding credit terms, discount, etc. However, there cannot be uniformity in all policies of all enterprises.

3. Size. Larger the enterprise, greater is the number of levels and the decisions to be made at each level. If all decisions are referred

[1]Newman William H. and James P. Logan, *Business Policies and Central Management*, Indian Edition, D.B. Taraporevala Sons & Co. Pvt. Ltd.

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upwards all the time, promptness in decisions disappears. Thus in such organisations decentralisation must be brought about.

4. History of the enterprise. Often those enterprises which grow from within have a greater degree of centralisation and those which have a large size due to mergers of initial decision shall have a greater degree of decentralisation. Excellent example is furnished by the Ford Motors under Henry Ford Sr., who centralised everything of decision-making.

5. Desire for Independence. The desire for independence is inherent in all men and it is more so in more dynamic amongest them. Independence is needed for recognition, status and smooth work, and avoidance of delays which may frustrate many managers and supervisors. Hence the need for decentralisation.

6. Availability of managers. Shortage or otherwise of management personnel affects the degree of decentralisation. The maxim is greater the availability of managers, greater the degree of decentralisation.

7. Control techniques. Decentralisation requires proper controlling. If adequate and proper control devices exist in an enterprise, the degree of decentralisation shall be greater and vice-versa.

8. Decentralised performance. Simple principle is that if performance is decentralised, authority must be decentralised.

9. Business dynamics. A business facing changing economic situations may force its managers to delegate and decentralise authority because of the pressure of circumstances. In static business, there is often centralisation.

10. Environmental influences. Governmental policies, trade unions and tax structure, etc., influence the structure of organisation. Koontz and O'Donnell point out that greater pressures of these forces reduce the degree of decentralisation.

Advantages of Decentralisation

On the basis of his study of General Motors, Drucker summarises the following advantages of decentralisation:

1. It *promotes speed in decision-making* and confusion is avoided.
2. *Avoidance of conflict* between the top management and the divisions is possible.
3. *Executives get confidence* in themselves and are appreciated for jobs well done. Politics also disappear.
4. There is *informality and democracy* in management.
5. There is *no gap* between the top managers and the subordinate managers. This results in informal organisation.
6. *Large number of promotable managers* is available. This ensures

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continuity in operations.

7. *Assessment of competitive divisions* or units can be made.
8. There is the *absence of* "*edict management*," and there is presenc of thorough information and consideration of central managemen decisions.

Limitations of Decentralisation

Decentralisation offers many advantages and no large organisation can hope to sustain without it, but there are serious limitations of decentralisation. More important of these limitations are as follows:

(*i*) **Limitations of scale.** To bring about decentralisation, it is necessary to create departments and divisions. This is possible only where an enterprise is large and lends itself to departmentation and divisionalisation. Thus small organisations or small offices do not have much scope for decentralisation.

(*ii*) **High costs.** Decentralisation involves duplication of procedures, equipment and services since there are autonomous or semi-autonomous departments and divisions. This means that the costs of decentralisation are high.

(*iii*) **Lack of trained managers.** Decentralisation assumes that trained managers are available in requisite numbers to assume authority and responsibility; but this is not always so. In fact most often there is a dearth of trained managers.

(*iv*) **Need for uniform policy.** In many businesses, there is a need for a uniform policy in terms of planning and action, for example, in the case of a public utility undertaking. Therefore, decentralisation may not be the right philosophy of management.

(*v*) **Problem of coordination.** Decentralisation also brings in its wake the problem of effective coordination among the activities of different departments, or divisions or sections of the organisation. Koontz and O'Donnell point out this limitation in these words: "As authority is decentralised, the manager becomes more and more an independent operator of a small business."

(*vi*) **Loss of control.** According to Koontz and O'Donnell "the principal problem with decentralisation is loss of control." Excessive decentralisation may frustrate the achievement of the goals of the enterprise; and thus its existence may be threatened.

Decentralisation versus Centralisation

It is necessary in any organisation to keep a balance between these two. If decentralisation is carried too far, it may mean absence of coordination, thus leading to anarchy in the organisation and ultimate

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collapse of the enterprise. Citing the General Motors experience, Koontz and O'Donnell remark, "Although General Motors practices and preaches decentralisation, it realizes that no division of a company and no department of any division can be given complete freedom and autonomy . . . . Combining decentralised authority with the degree of centralised authority necessary to accomplish control is one of the major reasons for the success of General Motors." There is centralisation of top-policy formulation in the case of General Motors. This ensures proper coordination and control. In practice, it is necessary to strike a balance between centralisation and decentralisation so that management achieves the goals for which it is working.

Recentralisation of Authority

Sometimes an enterprise may recentralise something of the authority which has been decentralised. However, the authority delegations are not wholly withdrawn. What happens is that certain conditions force recentralisation. They are:

(*i*) The growing importance of taxes, the need for a uniform labour policy, and the Government regulations may compel that authority over these areas be recentralised or managed by a department, with functional authority over them.

(*ii*) The recentralisation may also occur where through extensive decentralisation, top managers feel that they have lost control over the business or a department.

(*iii*) Sometimes recentralisation may also occur where a business faces a closure. Managers may reinforce their authority over the expenditure of funds, the level of costs or sales or the character of sales effort.

DEPARTMENTATION

Modern business is of complex nature due to large size, technological changes, changing laws, changing consumers' preferences and a variety of other factors operating internally and externally. To cope with these problems, coordinating becomes a difficult process. In order to achieve coordination, departmentation is resorted to. *Departmentation can be defined as the process by which activities or functions of the enterprise are grouped homogeneously into different groups.* Thus a department "designates a distinct area, division, or branch of an enterprise over which a manager has authority for the performance of specified activities." There may be a production department, marketing department, personnel department and accounting and finance department in an

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enterprise to look after the various activities. They are called the *functional departments.* The activities of every functional department need clerical or office services. Thus each functional department may have a "*sectional office*" to provide it with the clerical services. The problem of coordination of the activites of various functional departments and their respective sectional offices remains. Their coordination is achieved by the creation of the office, also called *General Office*, Administrative Office or Commercial Office. Many clerical activities are centralised at one place to achieve maximum economy and efficiency. Examples of such operations are correspondence, filing, duplicating, mailing and the office systems, etc.

Why Departmentation in the Office?

It is necessary to departmentise the office. Departmentation in the office is essential on account of the following basic reasons:

(*i*) **Span of management.** Departmentation is necessary because of the inability of a single executive to manage an unlimited number of subordinates efficiently—in short, the span of management. The span of management is not fixed but depends upon the type of work, the quality of management, the ability of subordinates and other factors. However, there is a limit beyond which an executive cannot superwise and control a given number of subordinates. Hence the need for departmentation.

(*ii*) **Need for occupational specialisation for a large business organisation.** This is an important factor. For a large business it is desirable that similar activities are grouped together and specialisation takes place since specialisation leads to economy in costs and promptness of action.

(*iii*) **Identification of responsibility.** Departmentation also facilitates fixation of responsibility for tasks assigned. Since there are divisions and sub-divisions of tasks, people can be easily held responsible for their share of the tasks.

Company Office and Departmentation

The office of a company is also organised on the same pattern as other business offices. The company office is divided into sectional offices. Each sectional office is assigned the task of performing a particular function. In smaller companies, departmentation is limited and the number of sectional offices is very small, quite often there is no sectional office. In larger companies, however, departmentation is done by having a division of the office into marketing finance, personnel, etc. The company office operates under the control of the

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company secretary who is responsible for coordinating the activities of the sectional offices and functional departments.

Basis of departmentation. Departmentation must take into account the geographical operations and the nature of business. Departmentation may, therefore, be done on the following basis:

(*i*) *Geographical basis.* Departmentation may be done with reference to the geographical area of the operations of the enterprise. This would happen where the products are marketed over a wide area. Thus separate regional offices may be created or separate departments within the centralised office may look after the respective regions.

(*ii*) *Product-line basis.* Where the enterprise is producing a number of goods (or services), it may resort to departmentation on the basis of products. For example, in the case of an automobile manufacturer, there may be a truck division and a car division and separate departments of the office may look after these divisions.

(*iii*) *Enterprise function basis.* This is the most *common basis* of departmentation. Under this basis of departmentation, the departmentation takes place in accordance with the activities or functions of the enterprise. Production process is carried on in the production department, marketing is done by the marketing department, accounting and finance are handled by the accounting and finance department, and so on. Within the office, departmentation may take place on functional basis, *e.g.*, filing department, typing pool, etc.

Relationship of the Office with Other Departments

Office exists for the organisation. Its central task is to knit the organisation together. Office is not only the storehouse of records but it is also its foundation. Every department in the organisation depends upon the office in one way or another. In relation to other departments, its principal functions are: (*i*) It *provides certain basic services* like typing, duplicating, mailing and correspondence. (*ii*) It *collects and analyses relevant information* for different departments. (*iii*) It *supplies the relevant information* to different departments and gets a feedback. (*iv*) It *coordinates the activities* of the different departments. Relationship of the office with some departments is discussed below:

1. Office and purchasing. Purchasing is directly linked with production. The factory or the works manager is the line manager for purchasing in small organisations while it might be a specialist function in very large organisations. The stores or the purchasing or the

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outside. On receiving the requisition or indents, the office will send out enquiries or will call for tenders specifying the details like quantity, date of expected delivery and other conditions attached to the purchasing. After the source of purchase has been determined, the office will make out an order and send it to the suppliers along with details of terms and conditions. The supplier supplies the goods along with the invoice. The goods are delivered in the stores from where intimation is received. The office sends the bill or the invoice to the Accounting Department and the copies of the purchase order and the Goods Receipt Note on the basis of which payment shall be made to the suppliers. Therefore, we see that the office and purchasing are to work in cooperation with each other.

2. Office and sales. Selling is a distinct activity of business on which its prosperity depends. Without an efficient office most of the efforts of the sales department will come to nothing and there is a possibility of its closure. The relationship of office with the sales is, therefore, very important. Quotations and tenders are to be sent to the government departments and other buyers of the products; and the enquiries which follow them are to be answered. Once the orders are received they are sent to the sales department for necessary execution. On execution of the orders, the invoices and related documents are sent by the office to customers. On receipt of payments, the cheques and details are sent to the accounting department for making necessary entries. Reminders to debtors on account of non-payment are to be sent through the office. The necessary records for various aspects of sales are to be sent through the office. Also the necessary records for various aspects of sales are to be kept in the office. We see that the two are inter-related in more than one way and, therefore, the office enjoys an unique position in the matter of effective sales management.

3. Office and accounting. The process of accounting is fundamental to the existence of a business. On a simpler plane the process of accounting can be divided into two parts: (*i*) *financial accounting*; and (*ii*) *cost accounting*. Financial accounting involves the maintenance of various books of original entry and ledgers. Financial accounting also involves the preparation of various statements regarding flows of funds and the financial budgets. Cost accounting relates to the evaluation of actual costs and means to reduce them. In some organisations, which are small in size, accounting is a part of the office. Where accounting is a distinct function, other departments rely on the office for relaying budgets and processes of control without which departments cannot hope to function at all.

4. Office and personnel. Personnel management also relies heavily

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on office. Right from the time an advertisement or circular is given for recruitment to the day that a person leaves the organisation, office plays an important role. After calling for applications, interviews are to be arranged and the interview letters are to be posted; appointment letters and agreements are to be prepared; personal files of workers are to be maintained and the wage and salary administration is kept in touch with regard to various aspects of workers' benefits, increments, etc. On leaving the organisation, a worker is entitled to benefits like gratuity, provident fund and pension. These will be worked out and intimated by the office to the worker. Issue of notices, warnings and disciplinary actions are to be through the office. Therefore, we see that the office and personnel are inter-linked in more than one way and we cannot think of a personnel department existing without the office.

QUESTIONS

1. What is delegation of authority? Outline its importance. What are the elements of delegation? Explain its principles.
2. What is delegation of authority? Comitan steps in delegation.
3. What is the source of authority? State the limits of authority.
4. What do you understand by the term 'responsibility'? Is it the same as 'accountability'?
5. Distinguish between centralisation and decentralisation of authority. How would you reconcile these two concepts in an organisation?
6. What do you mean by centralisation and decentralisation? Which of them is better?
7. Distinguish between authority, responsibility and accountability.
8. Define decentralisation of authority. To what extent is decentralisation of authority helpful in office administration.
9. What do you understand by the term 'departmentation'? Why is it necessary to have departmentation in the office? State the basis of departmentation.
10. You are the Personnel and Administration Manager. Your responsibilities include the management of the office function. Your M.D. wants you to state your views why delegation is not bringing forth the desired results. Would you recommend recentralisation?
11. You are the Secretary and Controller of a fast expanding company. The Board has asked you to suggest a scheme of departmentation of the office. Make the necessary suggestions.

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Chapter 5

OFFICE SYSTEMS AND ROUTINES

MEANING OF OFFICE SYSTEMS

LITTLEFIELD and others[1] describe a system in these words: "Specifically, a system may be defined as a group of inter-related and inter-dependent parts operating in sequence, according to a predetermined plan in order to achieve a goal or series of goals." Terry[2] also gives an almost similar definition when he describes a system as a *network of procedures which are integrated and designed to carry out a major activity.* When the term goal is applied to office it can be described as the standard sequence of operations in a particular business activity (the paying of wages, sales, invoicing, etc.) and is concerned with how these operations are performed. Office system also includes the use of office forms.

OFFICE SYSTEMS AND ROUTINES

Need for office systems. The task of management can be described as setting objectives for an enterprise to achieve them. This task makes great demands on management because as the enterprise expands and faces tough competition, the cost of each error becomes very high. Due to these difficulties, the enterprise is forced to search for logical relationships and patterns. In other words, it must understand its goals clearly and then it must make things simple and orderly through system. In management, the term system may be regarded as a *planned approach* to activities necessary to attain desired objective.

OFFICE ROUTINES OR PROCEDURES

To put office systems in practice (for that matter any type of system), it is essential to break them into small parts or "operations or procedures." Operations can be called the steps in a system. They can also

[1]Littlefield and others *op. cit.*

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be described as routines. *Office routines or procedures are thus a series of steps to be taken for doing a particular work in the office as per the office systems.* For example, recruitment of office staff is to be on the basis of planned systems. There are many parts of this process of recruitment. One part of this process is to screen applications.

Distinction between Systems and Routines or Procedures

The two are interlinked. Systems are plans or broad divisions of work while routines or procedures are small parts constituting the systems. Thus systems are an all-comprehensive term which covers the routines. When systems are planned, the routines or series of steps needed to implement systems are also outlined. This is necessary to allow for the smooth working of a system and avoidance of confusion. The routines are used time and again.

Characteristics of Office Systems

We are now in a position to summarise the characteristics of systems, which are as follows:

1. Office systems are *inter-related parts* operating in a sequence and they are not isolated actions.
2. Office systems are concerned with the *method of work* in the office.
3. They *aim* at achieving the goals of an enterprise or a department.
4. They concern with the place and time of *performance of work* in the office or any part of the enterprise.

Importance of Office Systems

Systems are acquiring great importance in the field of management, including office management, because of the following factors:

1. Good system *reduces delay and avoids delays* and thus eliminates frustration.
2. A system assists in *speedy despatch of work* in every section of the office since it is based on method of work employed.
3. A system involves *internal check*. Thus frauds are prevented and better control over work can be achieved through its application.
4. *Saving in labour and overheads* is brought about.
5. Since a system is *related to form design and form control*, it in turn is related to the degree of bureaucracy in organisation and its functioning.
6. A system is important for *securing coordination* amongst different departments or sections of the organisation or the office.
7. "A good system *reduces the chance of errors.*"

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8. A system can also assist in the inductions of new clerks in the Office.
9. "A good system makes it easier to *train staff.*"

Essentials of a Successful Office System

An office system to be successful should possess the following essential features :

1. Simplicity. A system to be successful should be simple both in its design and statement so that it is understood properly and implemented smoothly. Simplicity helps the person implementing it to learn about it quickly and implement it without loss of time. Besides, it lessens some of the problems involved in operation of the system.

2. Effectiveness. A system is effective if it achieves the objective or goal for which it was established within the time allocated for its implementation.

3. Efficiency. The system should also achieve its objective within the cost estimated for its implementation. And also it should have the minimum of adverse consequences.

4. Flexibility. The System should be "open" or, in other words, it should be able to absorb environmental changes or input factors. This is essential because otherwise work may get disrupted and the system may fail miserably. It also means that the system should be well-defined and structured and it should not be rigid. Rigidity makes the system inflexible and consequently leads to its failure.

5. Dependability. Since a well-designed system produces consistent results, its output is bound to be reliable. Also a good system has few breakdowns and thus it can operate with a minimum of downtime.

6. Acceptability. The best of the systems is bound to fail if it is not acceptable to those who are responsible for using it. If a system is not acceptable, it would be sabotaged or else it would fail because of its disuse.

Planning and Designing Office Systems

Like other activities of business, systems must be properly planned and carefully designed. In planning and designing systems, the *top management* must share the greatest responsibility and zeal. Planning and designing of systems with the support and approval of the top management are bound to result in their successful institution and smooth functioning. The best of the systems is going to meet a sad end if the top management does not take active interest in its planning, designing and implementation.

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Organisation for Systems Design

Task of systems design can be organised in one of the following ways:

1. *Outside consultants* make a special or over-all surveys of office systems and procedures in force or to be instituted.

2. The top management appoints a *systems committee* to consider every aspect of systems and make suitable suggestions.

3. A separate department or section consisting of *systems analysis* etc. is created to develop systems and suggest procedures and methods.

4. In smaller organisations the *office manager* is assigned the task of systems analysis and the suggestions to be made for their institution.

Planning of Systems (Parts or Steps)

The work of planning systems can be divided into the following important parts.

1. Establishing objectives and policies. Establishment of objectives is basic to systems. Establishment of objectives is essentially the task of top management. Some of the *broad objectives* are as follows:

(*i*) What information is to be supplied and to whom?

(*ii*) Is there a case for reducing present cost?

(*iii*) What is the expected rate of growth of information?

(*iv*) What should be the extent of mechanisation?

(*v*) What is the extent of competition?

These broad objectives are developed into definite terms as the work of systems design progresses. For example, the true objective of a purchase systems is to have the minimum cost of purchases. However, it is necessary not to have too many objectives of a system because that may make the system too complicated, too costly or ineffective.

The person or committee responsible for systems design must establish policies to serve as a guide for decisions in creating the system, *e.g.*, what is the policy regarding space allocation or the policy regarding the extent of mechanisation, etc. In fact there can be numerous policies which must be clearly understood and stated.

2. Defining systems boundaries. To begin with, it is essential to establish boundaries or limits (though tentative) within which a system is to operate. These boundaries give the framework within which a system is to operate. The boundaries set depend upon the objectives sought and which in turn, depend upon the definition of the proposed system and its contents.

In some cases, suggestions and specific wishes of top managers are communicated to the systems designers. These act as constraints within which a system is to be planned.

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3. Gathering data. The data is to be gathered on the basis of the requirments of the system. To begin, an orderly methodology must be followed to gather data, otherwise irrelevant, insufficient or wasteful data may be gathered. To gather data following *points* should be noted: (*i*) the type of data to be gathered; (*ii*) the *source* from which data can be gathered; (*iii*) the time when data is to be gathered, and (*iv*) the approach to be adopted in gathering data.

The last point is very important. One approach is to immediately collect all data concerning each step from origin to final disposal of a paper right in the beginning of the enquiry. This is not the best approach. Another approach is to gather data as the enquiry progresses and usually backward working of a paper is studied by moving from the last step to the previous steps in descending order. A third approach is to pick up a point somewhere between the point of origin of a document and its final disposal and work both backwards and forwards.

Sources of data. To gather data, it would be useful to make use of the following sources of data:

(*i*) *Organisation charts and manuals.* Organisation charts give some sketchy details. But when they are used with organisation manuals, they indicate how activities are grouped, what is the respective authority of members of groups and the tasks performed. It would be necessary to prepare a list of the tasks performed because it identifies the work done, where it is done and whether there are any duplications.

(*ii*) *Information flows and systems.* All relevant files should be used to extract data regarding systems and flows of information. They indicate the manner of work performance—past as well as current. Besides, they indicate preferences of different managers, their characteristics and their efficiency.

(*iii*) *Studying accounting data.* Accounting data reveals the cost and financial accounting controls and how they function. It is likely that in some cases partial, incomplete or rejected accounting systems operate which may even help insolving some of the problems in systems design.

(*iv*) *Observing work.* Observation of work is reliable and should always be used. The reliability of data already collected through other sources can be checked with its help. However, proper observation requires adequate training on the part of the observer.

(*v*) *Talking to supervisors and operative employees.* Persons involved in a process can furnish the best data for the purpose of designing systems. They are capable of giving the answers to many of the un-

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answered questions. Thus it would be advisable to interview supervisors and employees only towards the end of the process of data collection because by then the questions on which answers are sought are well-known. The task of seeking answers to questions is a very delicate matter and it is essential to use great care in obtaining answers.

It is quite likely that there is temptation to use a questionnaire for the purpose (which should in fact be avoided) because (*a*) it is difficult to design; (*b*) it is slow; (*c*) the total cost may be too high; and (*d*) employees object to its filling. However, if the number involved is small and the group is responsive, it may be useful to use a questionnaire. (*e*) *Business Machines manufacturers.* Some of the business machines manufacturers can aid in systems design. Although this is a common practice in industrially advanced countries, yet it is rather uncommon in our country, perhaps with the exception of computers, addressographs, and copying and duplicating machines.

4. Organising Information. After the data have been secured, they are to be organised. The data are to be organised in a manner that they are easily understood. The manner of their organisation would depend upon the type of study undertaken. Where data have not been gathered in a graphic form, it would be ideal to convert them in graphic form. By this means, interrelationship of data is established, duplication is revealed and a clear picture of systems emerges. This graphic presentation involves preparation of different types of flow charts, process charts, operation charts, and work distribution charts, etc.[1] Facts can be organised in a number of ways, which are stated as follows:

(*i*) **On the basis of objectives.** The facts can be organised on the basis of objectives to which they relate. However, it is not easy to define objectives and also it is not always possible to give clear and distinct divisions to the information.

(*ii*) **On the basis of organisation.** The facts can be organised on the basis of the organisation units (departments, divisions, etc.) and their respective personnel. By doing so, data flow is revealed and who makes which decision and its effectiveness is revealed. Besides, by consolidating different types of information into a single picture for the whole of the enterprise provides for designing an effective and inclusive system.

(*iii*) **On the basis of input and output.** This approach is simple and

[1]They are discussed later in the chapter.

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is very useful where existing systems are to be improved. This basis is difficult to use where a system is to be introduced for the first time.

(*iv*) **On the basis of processing means.** This method reveals the current status of the data processes being followed. It also reveals the use of machines (or their non-use) and the type of information obtained.

(*v*) **On the basis of problems.** During the collection stage, certain major problems or complaints are discovered. However, it is necessary to include only genuine problems or complaints and which are of major importance.

5. Evaluating Information. To evaluate data, it would be good to express general statements into quantitative terms. For evaluation the following points should be noted:

(*i*) A *cost-benefit analysis* should be undertaken because the systems designed should ultimately be convenient as well as cost-saving.

(*ii*) It is possible to obtain accurate data about cost and employee productivity in quantitative terms. The data already obtained on these aspects should be checked through *sampling* to determine the accuracy of source documents and reliability of reports and records.

(*iii*) Some evaluation, to some extent, depends upon the judgment and belief of an individual. This is so because some information is always made up of non-measurable elements.

(*iv*) Systems devised for running an organisation smoothly are also greatly influenced by factors operating outside an organisation, for example, the systems in the import and export offices of the organisation.

6. Establishing Systems' Premises. The steps already outlined for systems design form the basis on which system premises are to be established. The information gathered about the present procedures and systems gives facts about the quality and quantity of work already done. Now, a system has to be designed which has to take into account these facts. Along with these facts, it would be essential to take into account the future possibilities (*e.g.*, introduction of newer office machines) to build up the systems. In other words, the systems should have in-built flexibility. Although no part of a system can remain the same over a period of time, yet for practical purposes we have to assume some static concept in order to design the system. And as conditions change, the system can be altered.

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Implementing Systems

Once the systems are planned, it is necessary to communicate them to employees at all levels. Many a time systems suggest changes in existing methods of work and increased mechanisation. Thus it would be necessary to educate or train employees about newer methods of work; or buy new machines and arrange for the trainning or recruitment of employees to run these machines.

A system cannot be properly designed or implemented unless there is systems integration. In the following paragraphs we study the problem of systems integration.

SYSTEMS INTEGRATION

Organisation is a unified or single integrated system. This idea has been summed-up by Lyndall Urwick, the noted management authority, in these words: "An organisation is essentially an extremely complicated system of cooperation—in itself a single machine—in which effectiveness is dependent less and less on the quality of the individual efforts and more and more on the logic of the total design, and the provision with which each individual's contribution is geared to a master plan." This concept is now getting wide acceptance atleast in the industrially advanced countries by large as well as medium-sized firms; and even smaller firms are accepting this idea. Systems integration is worth a trial in our country as well as we progress more and more into greater industrial sophistication.

Problems in Systems Integration

Although systems integration is a necessity in modern organisations, yet it is not an easy task to achieve it. Systems integration faces a number of hurdles, which are summarised as follows:

1. **Duplication.** It is quite likely that some systems are duplicated and thus complete integration may cause great difficulty in eliminating the duplicated systems.

2. **Inter-department conflicts.** Quite often inter-department conflicts may adversely affect integration and the effectiveness of the systems may be reduced completely. For example, the sales department may want new product designs, large inventories and prompt deliveries; but production department would like to have long runs of designs, and the materials department may like to keep the inventories very low. There are many conflict areas.

3. **Over-simplification.** The persons designing the system—the office manager or a committee—may oversimplify systems to reduce duplica-

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tion of efforts. The systems integration, therefore, may not achieve its its purpose

4. Size. Size is possibly the greatest hurdle in the path of systems integration. This has been the experience of most enterprises that have grown into giants, whether in the USA or Europe. Drucker quotes the example of Aluminum Company of America, which makes the right decisions, but makes them nine months too late and then takes another nine months before putting them into action.[1] The size thus leads to the problem of delays which are to be cut short through integrating systems.

Developing Master Systems Plan

Systems integration can be best achieved by developing a master systems plan which provides built-in coordination and subordinates departmental goals to the over-all goals of the enterprise. Such a total systems concept is effective for a number of years. It also provides a sound model for long-term coordination, operating efficiency and attainment of enterprise objectives. Although it may not be possible to attain an ideal arrangement for sometime, yet it may ultimately lead to greater and greater efficiency in attainting the objectives.

There are different levels of systems in an organisation and this fact must be recognised in developing the master systems plan. These levels are as follows:

1. **The total system** of operations designed to attain over-all organisational goals.
2. **Integrated systems** (or combination of major related sub-systems), *e.g.*, linking of production control with quality control, or of purchases with accounts payable, etc.
3. **Sub-systems**, *e.g.*, the entire labour control system made up of separate procedures for recording of attendance, recording of time spent and output, etc.
4. **Procedures**, *e.g.*, the purchase procedure for stationery right from the stage of the evaluation of its need to its final acquisition.
5. **Methods** which are means of performing individual operations, *e.g.*, sealing a letter for despatch or preparation of a letter on the typewriter.

Advantages of Office Systems

Office systems are a scientific and rational approach to the problems of office management. Thus they offer the following advantages to management:

[1]Drucker, Peter F., Management, Indian Edition, Allied, 1975, p. 586

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1. Avoidance of delays and bottlenecks. Good system ensures smooth running of the office and thus all kinds of delays and bottlenecks are avoided. The work thus proceeds smoothly.

2. Better speed. Speedy despatch of work is possible as a system is based on methods of work employed and not on mere whims and desires of an individual manager or worker.

3. Better control. System ensures better control of work and in turn frauds are eliminated.

4. Economy. A good system also saves on overhead expenditure and direct labour because methods of work are based on proper analysis and they are changed from time to time to meet the changing environments of business.

5. Better form design and form control. As a good system aims at a better form design and form control, the work efficiency of the office increases and the unnecessary forms get eliminated. This in turn leads to greater efficiency in all departments of the enterprise.

6. Better coordination. Proper coordination is a major aim of a system. Better coordination is possible through the introduction of a system. This results in greater cohesion and efficiency. Bottlenecks get removed.

7. Training of staff. Office systems make training of staff better and thus efficiency of workers in the office improves. A few well-trained workers are better than an army of untrained workers.

8. Elimination of error. Since a system is based on proper analysis, chances of errors get eliminated or at least minimised. This further adds to the efficiency of the office.

9. Liberation of management. This single advantage is of utmost importance. Matthies[1] points out that a good system does not restrict but liberates the management and allows it to devote itself to tasks assigned to it. A good system leaves the boss free to do what only he has to do. "He can plan, initiate desirable action, examine the results of that action, evaluate performance, initiate improvement, delegate with confidence . . . provided that he will use systems to do the 90 per cent of the work which does not require his attention."

Limitations of Office Systems

Our discussion of office systems would remain incomplete unless we take into account the limitations under which they are to operate. In order to derive the maximum benefit out of systems, it would be essential to study their limitations. They are summarised below:

[1]Littlefield and others, *op. cit.*

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1. Limitation of planning. Planning of systems imposes a great limitation. A system will fail to produce results unless proper planning goes into its installation.

2. Limitation of repetitive use. If a system is used repeatedly, it loses its efficiency in great measure. It becomes a great restraint on the office. Changes in the system must be made from time to time on the basis of current needs, which impose a great expenditure on the organisation.

3. Limitation of strict adherence. Strict adherence to system all the time makes a system inflexible and unworkable. Thus it is essential that a system should leave something to the discretion and judgment of managers, supervisors and subordinates.

4. Limitation of cost. System must take into account the cost factors. A system must be evaluated at the planning stage to judge its efficacy so that it may bring about economy in the office instead of increasing overheads and direct labour costs.

5. Limitation of integration. Systems must be integrated to achieve the systems objectives. Systems integration is a formidable task and thus imposes a limitation on systems that operate in various departments. Certain systems have to be modified keeping in view the demands of other systems which operate in an organisation.

Revision of Systems

Systems have their own limitations and thus their utility is greatly reduced. However, in order to make systems more effective and to derive the best possible benefit of the systems, it would be necessary to revise them continuously. Terry[1] has put this problem in its right perspective when he states, "We strive to design the best possible systems, in keeping with our current knowledge and experience deemed appropriate to the individual case. But we know that the systems would require revision at some future date. It is simply a matter of time. With many new ideas popping up, managers' responsibilities and information needs changing, new machines appearing on the market, new applications of existent products, being developed, and competitive actions increasing, the answer in part is to analyse systems currently in use and to seek improvement in them." The revision of systems should be undertaken by studying the following *problems*:

1. Who needs the information?
2. What kind of information he needs?
3. In what form and how current should the information be?

[1]Terry, *op. cit.*

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4. Within what constraint (especially cost) should the information be provided?
5. Who will revise the systems?

FLOW OF WORK

The analysis of office systems refers basically to the flow of work through the office. Flow of work can be defined as "The way work moves along from one operation to another—the quantity or volume of work going through the rate at which it moves along, and the smoothness of its passage." Flow of work is basically a *problem of control* of work output. In the words of Leffingwell, "In controlling output, the first and most important consideration is to handle work so that it shall flow steadily without any interruption; that is velocities at all points should be equal and uninterrupted." The study of the flow of work is basically a study aimed at greater efficiency in every sphere of office activity so that not only costs are cut down but delays are also eliminated.

Flow of work is a problem to be solved by managers. It can be described as the test of their control ability—an ability to analyse and plan proper flow of work so that it flows smoothly at the desired speed to meet the work objectives.

Problems in the Smooth Flow of Work

Smooth flow of work faces a number of problems, which must be tackled in order to lend efficiency to office routine. These problems are outlined below:

1. **Unequal flow of work.** The work in the office cannot be equal throughout the day, the week or the year. The work may be very heavy on a particular day in the week or it may be very heavy during a particular period of the day. For example, there may be greater incoming mail in the mornings and on Mondays. Similarly work may be heavier during a particular season. For example, in a Government office, the work may be heavier during the closing part of the financial year. The problem of unequal flow of work can be solved by collecting relevant statistics and their careful analysis.

2. **Interruptions to work.** Quite often work is interrupted. The interruptions to work are internal as well as external. Internal interruptions may be caused by a number of factors, such as, there is lack of materials with which to work, information needed is not available immediately, changes of work through change of plan and changes of work because of poor planning. Besides, calls from superiors and

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gossiping may be other factors. External interruptions to work may be caused by outsiders, calling on employees and external telephone calls. It would be necessary to take into account these factors and minimise their incidence.

3. Unequal times needed for different operations. This can be a major problem in the flow of work, more particularly where different operations of a job need different times to complete. For example, in the sequence of operations, the first operation may require only one minute, while the next may require three minutes. Thus a clerk performing the first operation would be free too soon and the other may be too busy. Thus between the two operations, idle time would result. It is thus necessary to have a proper study of different kinds of jobs in the office.

4. Lack of standards. Lack of standards may burden some willing workers with greater load of work, while others may languish. It is thus necessary to standardise work for all workers in the office.

5. Lack of planning. Where office management lacks systematic planning of work, work can never flow smoothly. The remedy for this lies in the proper planning of all office work.

6. Lack of scheduling. The lack of scheduling is the direct result of the lack of planning. The lack of scheduling leads to poor flow of work.

Straight-line Flow of Work

Smooth flow of work can be ensured by the use of the *Straight-line flow of work method.* The method is applicable to the factory as well as the office. It can be described as *the method in which the work, while progressing from one operation to another, should follow a course approximating as nearly as may be possible, a straight line.* This means that the work must always move forward from the beginning to the end of each operation or a part of it. The work must not move backward or sideways, otherwise the principle of shortest route (a straight line) would be violated. Such a violation would slow the progress of work, interfere with its continuity and cause additional labour and loss of time. Following is the summary of the advantages of such a method:

1. Greater speed. The speed of work increases greatly since the movement of work is over the least area.

2. Lesser messenger work. The method reduces the messenger work greatly since work moves in a straight line and the distance between the different operations is small. In fact the desks can be so arranged that the papers are passed over from one desk to another by the clerks.

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3. Less loss of papers. In this method, papers are rarely mislaid or lost as they are handled in a systematic manner.

4. Use of conveyors. In Europe and the USA such an arrangement allows for the use of conveyors and this adds greatly to speed of work and consequently the volume of work done increases greatly.

5. Keeps executives and clerks at their desks. This method eliminates the need for constant movement of expensive executives and other office personnel from their desks to the areas where they want to communicate information or send documents. This means that the method eliminates the use of expensive personnel as mere messenger boys.

Analysis of Flow of Work

It is necessary to analyse flow of work because analysis of flow of work helps to correct courses of flow of work. It is a study by which the efficiency of flow of work can be measured and the wastages can be eliminated by making suitable suggestions in the light of the analysis carried out. Neuner and Keeling[1] suggest three types of charts for such an analysis. They are discussed as follows:

1. Office layout charts. Office layout charts are those charts which

OFFICE LAYOUT CHART

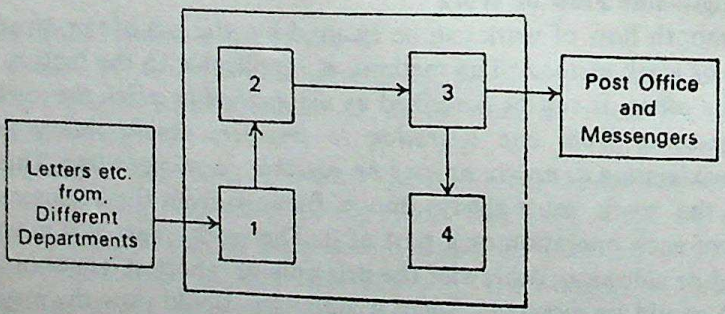

FIG. 5.1. Outgoing Mail in a Large Office. 1. *Correspondence Section* 2. *Typing Pool* 3. *Despatch Section* 4. *Filing Supervisor* (*Central Filing*)

Note. Only copies are filed.

analyse the flow of each part of office activity throughout the office. A separate *before* and *after layout chart* for each system of procedure is

[1]Neuner and Keeling, *op. cit.*, pp. 288-93.

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prepared. In every chart lines are drawn to indicate the movement of various business papers throughout the organisation. After the two charts ("before charts" and "after charts" have been drawn, they are then compared. This comparison will point out the waste of effort, motion and time.

Thus an effort can be made to eliminate such a waste. The comparison of direction and distance in the movement in the office will point out waste motion and back tracking. Besides, the comparison of distance travelled before and after the changes in office routines and procedures will indicate the distance and time saved in doing office work. Office Layout Charts should be prepared for those transactions in the office which occur most frequently.

2. Flow process charts. The flow process charts are used quite commonly to study office work. These charts are also known as *work simplification* charts since they aim at simplifying office work. The flow process chart helps to analyse graphically the office systems and procedures. Where certain office systems and procedures hinder the smooth flow of work, they are modified to eliminate delays. In the USA, symbols used in these charts have been standardised.[1] These standardised symbols are given below:

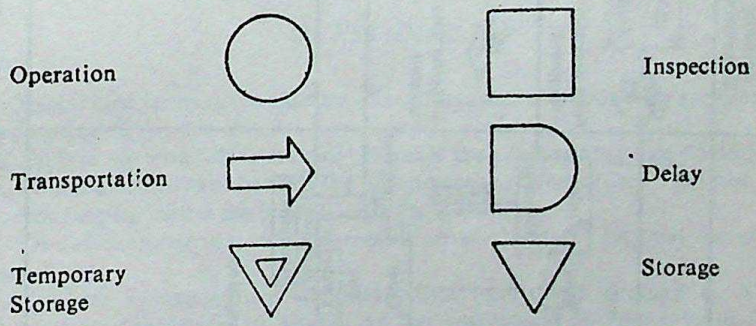

FIG. 5.2

3. Management type flow charts. It is a horizontal deparmentalised flow chart. The chart is read from left to right and is fully illustrated. Every phase of the process is described by a short and descriptive sentence that explains the operation at that point. Fig. 5.3 on p. 80 illustrates a management type flow chart of order processing procedure.

[1]Since the symbols are standardised, they can be used in any kind of charts.

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FIG. 5.3. Management-Type Flow Chart of an Order Processing Procedure.

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Advantages of Flow Charts

Flow charts are very useful since they offer a number of advantages, which are summarised as follows:[1]

(*i*) Information about processes must be set down logically and systematically.

(*ii*) Faults in processes become more obvious. Often things can be seen better on a chart than on the office floor.

(*iii*) The charts enable the problem to be visualised, grasped and digested more easily, particularly when it is discussed and put across.

(*iv*) Since the charts do not involve the preparation of lengthy reports, therefore they are cheap and quick to produce.

Limitations of Flow Charts

Moore[2] sums up the limitations of flow charts in these words: "None the less you can't expect too much from charts. A chart by itself doesn't improve a job—it takes a man to make improvements. All a chart can do is to help him to see the possibilities . . . ." In other words, charts by themselves are useless unless man makes their adequate use. Where charts are not put to any use, the money and time spent on their preparation are a sheer waste.

QUESTIONS

1. Explain the terms office systems, procedures and methods with appropriate examples. (*Co-Secy. Prel. '80*).

2. Explain the term 'office systems'. Explain their importance and limitations.

3. "Office systems have become the dire necessity of the office." Discuss this statement keeping inview the benefits of office systems.

4. "An office system to be successful must possess certain essential features." Discuss.

5. You are a management consultant and have been retained by a big machine-tool manufacturer to advise on the institution of office systems. Plan and design them.

6. What do you mean by systems integration? What problems do you face in systems integration.

7. Write detailed notes on the following:

(*a*) Organisation for systems design.

(*b*) Establishing systems premises and implementing systems.

(*c*) Development of Master Systems Plan.

8. Why is it necessary to revise systems? What factors would you consider in revising systems?

[1]Brech, *op. cit.*, pp. 290, 294.

[2]Moore, Franklin G., *Manufacturing Management*, Richard D. Irwin Inc.

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9. What are the different types of flow charts? Discuss the advantages and limitations of flow charts.

10. What is the meaning of the term 'flow of work'? Discuss the problems in the smooth flow of work.

11. You are the office manager of a large organisation. How would you analyse flow of work? How would you ensure smooth flow of work?

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Chapter 6

OFFICE ACCOMMODATION AND LAYOUT

IMPORTANCE OF OFFICE ACCOMMODATION

THE central objective of all management processes is to get the work done willingly at the lowest cost. Office management aims at getting the work done in the office at the lowest possible cost through proper selection and training of staff and the machines and equipment that they use. The efforts of the best worker with the best kind of equipment would not produce the desired amount of efficiency unless the environments are congenial to efficient working. Hence there is the need for sufficient accommodation with the right type of amenities imbibed in it. Suitable and congenial accommodation affects favourably the mental and physical well-being of the office worker. He is bound to be more efficient since he feels that he is properly looked after in terms of accommodation. Although in our country office accommodation is not being paid the attention it deserves, yet over the last two decades or more, Government as well as business are showing a greater awareness about this aspect of the office. We now find well-maintained offices in the sphere of business.

Factors to be Considered to Provide Accommodation

Following factors are to be considered in providing the right type of office accommodation:

1. Locating the office building.
2. Securing the required office accommodation.
3. Size of office accommodation.
4. Shape of office accommodation.
5. Lighting and ventilation of the space.
6. Layout and facilities for office organisation.
7. Customer and staff conveniences.
8. Cost of office space or accommodation.
9. Miscellaneous considerations.

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1. LOCATING THE OFFICE BUILDING

It is necessary to locate the office building properly. A bad location destroys efficiency as it results in loss of time and causes inconvenience and annoyance to the office worker as well as the outsiders who deal with the organisation. It is difficult to state precisely as to what is the best location. Each organisation whether business or non-business, has to select its own site by taking into account the various factors that affect its functioning.

Choice of Location: Urban or Suburban

The management has to take a major decision as to whether the location of the office is to be in an urban area (or a large city or town) or in a suburban area, situated at a distance from a city but quite closely connected with it by means of transport and communication. In the West, there has been an increasing tendency to locate offices away from urban concentrations to suburban areas. The reasons for such a tendency have been many. Some of the more important of the *reasons* are: (*i*) *Higher cost.* Per square-metre cost of office site is phenomenal in urban areas while in *suburbs* it is a fraction of it. (*ii*) *Over-crowding and congestion.* Urban centres are over-crowded and congested with all their bad consequences; and hence even the requisite space needed is not easily available. (*iii*) *Growing transport and communication facilities.* The growth of modern means of transport and communication has facilitated the growth of suburbs where office buildings can be located. (*iv*) *Shift in industrial activity.* There has been a physical shift of industry from urban to suburban (or even rural) areas. This also means that some part of the office must go to the suburbs along with the manufacturing unit.

The offices of certain institutions like the banks and insurance companies function more effectively in *urban locations* because of greater population density, greater individual incomes, better traffic flow and more prominence of a site. However, in the ultimate analysis it is the cost factor that influences the choice. The best or the *optimum location* is one which gives the maximum advantages at the lowest possible cost. In practice, however, urban or suburban location would be evaluated with the help of factors such as, *firstly*, the area or region in general, *secondly* the community, and *thirdly*, particular site should be selected, in that order.

In our own country, there has been a slight shift in office location from the urban to suburban centres. But, in general, the tendency is still to locate the office in urban location. Take the case of Delhi,

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where office accommodation has grown manifold and is concentrated within a radius of about 2-3 kilometres of the Connaught Place complex where scores of high rise buildings have come up during the last one decade or so. Sooner or later, this tendency will have to be given up due to cost and other factors (transport, congestion, etc.).

Centralised versus decentralised location. Large concerns, which had traditionally operated from a single central location, are now following the pattern of setting up branches in different parts of the country. They are doing so to take advantage of factors like local raw materials, labour supply, regional markets, transport economies and such other factors which influence their functioning. Some of the concerns (like Hindustan Machine Tools—HMT) have tried to keep each plant small enough for convenient administration and for closer labour-management relations.

Factors affecting office location. Once a decision has been made as to urban or suburban location, it would be desirable to consider the following factors for choosing the office building:

(*i*) *Availability of means of transport.* The office should be so located that efficient means of transport are available to the staff as well as the customers. This would ensure smooth functioning of the office. Location near a railway station, inter-state bus terminal or airport is of great advantage to certain types of businesses.

(*ii*) *Availability of various service facilities.* Service facilities as banks, insurance companies, post offices, road transport company's offices, retail stores and restaurants ensure greater efficiency of the business since they are to be used by the staff as well as the business.

(*iii*) *Relation of office with other units of the enterprise.* It would be worthwhile to locate the office in the same building as the factory if the firm is a manufacturing firm. Similarly the location of the office would be greatly influenced by other activities of the business, e.g., sales. Proximate location of different units of the same business results in saving of time of communication between different units of the organisation, better parking facilities, better public relations and better personnel servicing.

(*iv*) *Relation of office with surroundings.* It would be ideal to locate office building in a manner that the surroundings are healthy. Noise, fumes and congestion in an area have a bad effect on the health and efficiency of the office worker.

(*v*) *Effect of localisation.* If the office is located at a place where the offices of units carrying similar business are located, it would ensure reputation and better customer service. But this can not be a guiding factor. In fact over the last one decade or so, there has been

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a tendency against this type of concentration in our own country due to better means of communications (telephone and telex, etc.) and improved transport facilities.

(*vi*) *Central, state and local taxes.* Such taxes too influence the location of the office. Lower taxes on property, manufacturing and sales, etc. in a given area may be helpful in locating the office in that area. But the tax advantage will have to be considered in the light of other factors of location.

(*vii*) *Getting the required space.* Before finally deciding the location it would be essential to find out whether the minimum required space is available in a given location. It is an important factor that puts a constraint on choosing a preferred location.

2. SECURING THE REQUIRED OFFICE ACCOMMODATION

Once the location has been finalised, it would become necessary to choose office space or building. Such office space or building should be of adequate size and proper shape to suit the requirements of the organisation. Besides, the space secured must allow for expansion of the office for time to come.

Ownership versus Lease

One of the basic questions as to the office building is whether it is to be owned or taken on rent or lease. This is a policy decision which is to be taken by managers at the top.

Advantages of own building. Own building offers numerous advantages, chief of which are: (*i*) The *building can be planned* on the basis of present and possible future needs. Thus best possible use of accommodation can be made. (*ii*) Own building *lends prestige* to the organisation and enhances its credit worthiness besides improving its image in the eyes of the customers. (*iii*) Own building represents a *wise investment decision*, especially, where part of the building is rented on good terms. (*iv*) Own building *lends permanence* and the address need not be changed again and again due to growing needs of the business since own building design takes care of the future needs.

Drawbacks of own building. Own building has its own drawbacks, which are: (*i*) Own building may require *huge investment* which may not be within the easy reach of small or medium-sized businesses. (*ii*) *High costs of maintenance* may also prove too much for a small or medium-sized business. (*iii*) Ownership of building also presents other problems to the management, like payment of taxes and settlement of disputes with tenants, if part of it is rented.

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Advantages of leased building. Leased building has its own advantages, chief of which are as follows: (*i*) *No investment decision responsibility*. The managerial decision about investment in building and its benefit and monetary return has not to be taken. This saves the management from possible bad judgement and its consequences. (*ii*) *No maintenance responsibility*. The management is not burdened with the responsibility of its maintenance. It also becomes free from problems like payment of taxes and settlement of disputes with tenants. (*iii*) *Ease in location change*. Change in location of the office can be affected with great ease. Whenever the office location needs a change, another building in some other better location can be taken on lease. In essence, there is greater flexibility in terms of location.

Drawbacks of leased building. Leased building has its own drawbacks, chief of which are as follows: (*i*) *Not need-based.* Leased building is normally not constructed on the basis of the needs of the lessee. Hence layout process may present with its own problems. (*ii*) *Wastage of space*. Since the building is not constructed on the basis of the layout plan of the organisation, some area may go waste in the process of layout. (*iii*) *High rents.* Rents are generally very high for urban locations. Thus the operating costs of business may increase (*iv*) *Lack of permanence.* Leased building does not lead to permanence of address. This may cause inconvenience to customers.

Purchase of Old Building

Sometimes, the organisation may buy an old building in a particular location. Such a purchase should be affected after considering the following *factors*: (*i*) The old building represents a wise investment. The top management should get this aspect examined properly. (*ii*) The title of the building and other legal aspects must be examined carefully. (*iii*) The building suits the present and possible future needs of the business. If the building requires too much of alteration, it may prove to be a very costly affair. In practice this is a major consideration.

3. SIZE OF OFFICE ACCOMMODATION

Once the decision as to whether the office space is to be owned or taken on lease has been made, another decision to be taken along with that is the decision as to the size of the office accommodation. The size of the office accommodation must be such that it suits the present needs and allows for possible future expansion. To provide for the future growth of the office, it is necessary to find out the rate of

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growth of the business and the effect that this growth will have on the office. However, it is desirable to avoid the provision of unnecessary space for future use, if the growth rate can not be calculated with some certainty because it means payment of rent for the unutilised space.

It is difficult to suggest the formula for providing a given per square metre space for one office worker. Each business will have to work out its own requirements on the basis of the nature and needs of the organisation. However, it is necessary to provide adequate space for machines and equipment and the personnel in a way that they work with greatest efficiency and the least inconvenience.

4. SHAPE OF OFFICE ACCOMMODATION

Shape of the office accommodation is an important factor to be considered while procuring space. The shape of the accommodation may be square, rectangular, *I-shaped*, *narrow* and *long*, *vertical* or *horizontal*. There are two important *reasons* why proper shape should be selected. *Firstly*, lot of space may be wasted in providing for corridors and space for free movement of personnel. For example, if the space is narrow and long, the cost of providing space may be unduly high. *Secondly*, shape of the office building affects the efficiency of the personnel. For example, it may be preferable to have accommodation on two floors separated by a distance of 3 metres than to have space on the same floor which is 60 metres long. In the latter case, the distance to be covered by the personnel from one end to another end is immense which leads to lesser efficiency.

Other things being equal, rectangular shape of the office is ideal. It ensures better utilisation of office accommodation and greater efficiency of the personnel as they move over a limited area.

5. LIGHTING AND VENTILATION OF THE OFFICE SPACE

Adequate and proper lighting and ventilation of the office building or space, is of great importance since this has an important effect on the efficiency and morale. A well-lighted and ventilated accommodation puts lesser physical and mental strain on the office worker and consequently, his morale is higher. Doors, windows and ventilators must be provided in adequate numbers in the building to ensure free flow of air and enough natural light. Provision of air-conditioning and artificial lighting is a costly measure both in terms of fixed as well as running costs. If the building faces south (or even south-east, south-

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west, east or west) natural light would enter the building in sufficient measure.

6. LAYOUT AND FACILITIES FOR OFFICE ORGANISATION

Modern business rests not only on its personnel and equipment but also how they are arranged. Much of the efficiency of men and machines in the modern office depends upon their layout. In the modern office, the internal arrangement must take place on the basis of the office systems and structure of organisation. The size, shape and number of rooms, the location of gangways and corridors and other arrangements should be made with reference to the location of different departments and the layout of the staff and office equipment and machines. Layout should be such that inter-related departments are contiguous to each other and, as far as possible, all the departments may be situated on the same floor.

7. CUSTOMER AND STAFF CONVENIENCE

While selecting or constructing office accommodation it is necessary to provide properly for the convenience of customers and staff. Departments, such as Sales and Cash, which are visited more frequently by customers should be so located that they have an easy accessibility. In today's office, almost every part of the office serves as a contact with the outside world. There should be adequate provision of canteens, washrooms, cloak rooms and waters points, etc. Where the office is scattered over many floors or on a higher floor, there should be proper provision for elevators or lifts for the convenience of visitors and the staff.

8. COST OF OFFICE SPACE OR ACCOMMODATION

It is the most important single factor that would ultimately determine the choice of the office building. In our country, in large cities, the cost per square metre varies between Rs 20 to Rs 50 per month (or about Rs 2 to Rs 5 per square foot) and even more of the hired floor space. The cost of office accommodation is influenced by location as well as its size and internal arrangements. The management should aim at striking a balance between the total requirements and the capacity to pay for office space. While balancing these two factors, it is necessary to keep in mind the efficiency factor. However, the cost of space should be within the means of the business but at the same

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time efficiency cannot be sacrificed merely for the sake of economy in cost.

9. MISCELLANEOUS CONSIDERATIONS

There are some other considerations which must also be borne in mind while selecting office space or accommodation. More important of these are flexibility of the space to match the changing needs of business, ease in installing machines and equipment, safety of the machines and equipment and safety of the personnel in the office.

OFFICE SPACE PLANNING OR OFFICE LAYOUT

After having decided about the office space, it becomes necessary to go in for office space planning or office layout. Office layout is one of the most important tasks of office management. It can be defined as "*the arrangement of all physical components within the available floor space to provide maximum effectiveness and the coordination of these components into an efficient and attractive unity.*"[1] In other words, it can be described as the arrangement of different departments, equipments and men within a given available floor space with a view to make optimum utilisation of space and ensure maximum efficiency of the office.

Importance

Proper office layout is crucial to efficiency of business. Layout is important to ensure efficiency due to the following *factors*:

(*i*) **To ensure proper utilisation of floor space.** To ensure proper utilisation of floor space it is necessary to have a proper layout. Hence the importance of layout.

(*ii*) **To facilitate supervision.** Proper supervision of office work is essential for the proper running of the office. Layout facilitates the task of supervision and cuts down its cost.

(*iii*) **To facilitate inter-communication.** Smooth running of office requires adequate inter-communication. This is facilitated by a good layout.

(*iv*) **To ensure better use of office machines and equipment.** To reduce per capita cost of running the office, it is necessary that office machines and equipment must be put to the best use. This can be ensured by a proper layout where certain machines

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[1]Terry, *op. cit.*

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and equipment are centralised while others are decentralised.

(*v*) **To ensure better comfort and morale of workers.** The importance of a proper office layout also arises from the fact that the workers must feel comfortable while at work so that their morale is good. A good office layout aims at providing the best working conditions.

(*vi*) **To ensure favourable impression on customers and visitors.** The well-being of a modern business organisation depends much on the goodwill of its customers and visitors. Office is one such means of projecting the image of the organisation. Hence the importance of office layout to achieve this objective.

(*vii*) **To ensure smooth workflow.** Proper layout is important to ensure smooth work flow *so that the office functions efficiently and* administrative management costs are reduced to the minimum.

Objectives of Office Space Planning or Layout

While office layout is being planned it would be desirable to keep in mind certain objectives. These objectives are the goals which are to be achieved through layout. It is the task of the office manager to define these objectives carefully so that layout achieves maximum efficiency. Before finalising layout, the office manager would do well to prepare *a model plan of the layout* on paper with some pieces of coloured paper cut to scale representing personnel, machines and furniture. In office space planning or layout the following *objectives* must be keep in mind:

1. It must ensure effective *work flow* so that all work proceeds systematically and unhindered.

2. *Optimum utilisation of space* must be ensured.

3. It should *provide for maximum scope of supervision* at minimum effort on the part of the supervisor. Thus the clerks' desks be located near their supervisor. This also ensures discipline.

4. It must *allow for free movement* of the office personnel. The staff at work may be able to move about to their places of work and machines freely without any hindrance.

5. There should be *provision of best possible conditions* to the office staff. This is necessary to obtain the maximum output.

6. People doing *confidential work* should be provided with suitable accommodation.

7. Similarly people doing *work which requires absence of noise* should be so located as to ensure its elimination.

8. It is necessary to follow *functional departmentalisation.* For exam-

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ple, typists may be placed together at one place in the office, preferably at a place where noise created by them does not affect other office work.

9. Properly laid out office also ensures *speedy inter-communication.*

10. Properly laid out office creates a favourable impression on *customers and visitors.*

11. A very important objective today in the context of rising office costs would be to ensure that the *lighting, cooling, air-conditioning and heating costs* are the minimum per square metre.

Principles of Office Layout

To attain the objectives, it would be necessary to have a proper layout, but in practice it is difficult to obtain an ideal layout. However, to achieve good layout the following principles should be observed:

1. Principle of flow of work. Flow of work should be smooth and unhindered. Whether the layout is in a straight line, Circle or U-shape, the movement of people and papers should be minimum.

2. Principle of free movement and observation. The floor space should be (as far as possible) free from partitions, columns, etc., so that there is free movement and observation.

3. Principle of effective supervision The layout should be such which aids effective supervision.

4. Principle of flexibility. Layout should be such which allows for changes in future because business is not a static entity.

5. Principle of morale and loyalty. It is recognised that it is necessary to ensure the loyalty of workers in large organisations because working groups are social groups. A proper layout of the office can certainly contribute to this aspect through a careful design.

6. Principle of balance. The layout should be balanced and of pleasing appearance. Balancing gives it a sense of responsibility; and pleasing appearance of the office attracts more customers and improves the image of the enterprise.

7. Principle of maximum utilisation or least cost. Space should be utilised to the full so that money costs are the lowest. But at the same time each clerk must be given a minimum working space because this increases efficiency and also makes for a healthier staff.

8. Principle of equipment placement. Equipment and filing cabinets should be placed in a way that the filing cabinets and equipment to be used by the staff are conveniently located. The staff should be able to approach them without loss of time or inconvenience.

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9. Principle of arrangement. Desks should be arranged in a manner

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that they face the same way according to a standard plan. In this way, not only the office looks more efficient but supervision also becomes easier.

10. Principle of good lighting. While laying out, it is necessary that as far as possible natural lighting be provided, especially, for work requiring greater light. In such a case, such work should be located close to the windows.

11. Principle of good ventilation. Ventilation in layout plays a significant role. The problem of ventilation is more complex where there is mixed staff of men and women. It may, therefore, be such which serves their individual needs.

12. Besides, it would be *necessary to provide gangways* between various rows of desks. Their width will depend upon the number of desks, equipment, etc.

The above principles must be coordinated to achieve a perfect office layout. The final objective to integrate men, materials and machines for economic office operations.

Advantages of Good Layout

A good layout is a good investment and it offers the following advantages:

1. Promotes economy. A good layout aims at making the most economic and effective use of the available floor space. Hence it leads to cost reduction in the office.

2. Promotes efficiency. A properly laidout office promotes efficiency since it is based on the route that documents are supposed to follow. The documents follow the shortest route and this allows for smooth flow of work.

3. Effective supervision. A good layout makes supervision more effective. In fact the amount of supervision needed would be reduced to the minimum, the burden of supervision gets reduced and there is saving in costs of supervision.

4. Optimum use of machines and equipment. There is optimum use of machines and equipment in the office. The layout provides for joint use of machines and equipment. This incidentally also reduces the amount of investment in them.

5. Speeds up inter-communication. A good layout speeds up inter-communication since activities in an office are placed in a sequence. The inter-communication follows the shortest route.

6. Production planning and control. The process of production planning and control is greatly facilitated. The time that a document or information would take to be produced can be estimated with greater

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accuracy and work can be planned accordingly.

7. Lesser cost of lighting, cooling, etc. The lighting, cooling, heating and air-conditioning costs are mounting. A properly laid out office reduces the costs of permanent fixtures and equipment. Besides, the running and maintenance costs of these systems are reduced.

8. Better morale. From the worker's viewpoint, a well-planned office is conducive to his comfort and morale, whereas cramped and badly planned layout can have the opposite effect. A badly planned office increases fatigue and tension.

9. Better goodwill. A well-planned layout projects an image of efficiency to the visitors. This results in greater goodwill in the minds of those who deal with the office.

Types of layout

There are two types of layout based on the activities performed in an office. They are:

1. Group layout. It is a layout in which persons performing similar activities or office machines doing similar work are grouped together *e.g.*, all typists are put in the typing pool and all accounting machines are put in one room.

2. Process layout. It is a layout in which men and machines are arranged on the basis of the sequence of operations, *e.g.*, the filing section may be placed next to the despatch section and so on.

In practice, neither of these two types of layout can be used exclusively. Both these types of layout are to be combined to attain the desired flow of work and efficiency. For example, while most of the typists might be put in the centralised typing pool, yet some of them would be placed next to important executives.

A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO OFFICE LAYOUT

The systems approach has become popular in Europe and the USA. In our country, this approach has started making limited inroads into the new designs of office buildings and layouts. The traditional office is designed backwards, *i.e.*, it is built around the organisational hierarchy as reflected in the organisation chart and not around the flow of information and papers through the office. In a factory, layout is based on the flow of materials (process layout). Therefore, applying the same principle, the office layout should be based on processes. The systems approach to office layout begins with an analysis of the flow of documents and the flow of oral communications in the organisation. Once these two types of flows have been properly identified and des-

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cribed, an office layout that permits optimum efficiency in the flow of information can be decided. One of the important features of the systems approach is the open office, which is discussed in the following paragraphs.

OPEN OFFICE VERSUS SMALL INDIVIDUAL OFFICE

While planning office space or laying out the office, it would be necessary to take into consideration whether the enterprise requires a few open offices; or a large number of small individual offices are preferable. The open office principle has become very popular even in our country. In case of an open office the staff is put in a large room or hall instead of in separate rooms. Every section or department is allotted a separate space within the hall and sometimes counter-high filing cabinets and shelves are used to demarcate the area of each section or department. However, some private rooms and offices are to be provided for the top managerial personnel and also for work requiring privacy and concentration.

Advantages of Open Office

Open office offers many advantages over the small individual offices. They are as follows:

1. Economical. Open office is more economical in more than one way. It is a common experience that about twenty-five per cent of floor space is consumed by walls and partitions. If small individual offices are to be created, considering that rents of office buildings especially in bigger cities are fantastic, open office proves more economical. Besides, temporary light partitions are less costly than the permanent walls.

2. Better work and supervision. Open office encourages better work through better supervision and easier inspection. The worker faces the supervisor, hence it accounts for better supervision and consequently better coordination of work.

3. Flexibility. This is a great virtue in the open office. Changes in the layout can be affected without much difficulty, since every item of furniture and equipment can be moved freely.

4. Better communication. The workers do not face any hindrances like walls or doors and thus communication is more effective than in the private offices. A clerk needs taking only a few steps to move to another position for consultation, advice and instruction. This leads to smoother flow of work.

5. Centralisation. In the open office, stationery store and filing can

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be easily centralised for greater ease, efficiency and economy.

6. Joint use of equipment. It is possible to have a joint use of office equipment, such as calculators, telephones and photocopiers, etc. This ensures fuller use of equipment and consequent economy.

7. Economy in lighting, cooling etc. Open office also leads to economy in fixed and operating costs of lighting, cooling, air-conditioning and heating, etc.

8. Smarter look. The office wears a smarter look and to that extent it provides as an advertisement for the organisation itself at no additional cost. This means more satisfied customer. The worker also takes pride in the organisation and this leads to better morale and work output.

9. Better lighting and ventilation. Open office also ensures better lighting and ventilation. Thus the office is healthier place to work.

10. Democratic. An open office is democratic since all grades of staff are on view. Senior staff have to preserve their position by a display of efficiency and character rather than by putting door-plates and illuminated "Enter" signs.

11. Easy to decorate. An open office is easier to decorate. In fact the staff themselves provide part of the decoration: making it a pleasant place to work in.

Surveys in England and other industrially advanced countries have proved beyond doubt that clerical efficiency is better in open-plan office than in small individual offices. However, from the point of view of the senior office personnel, the over-riding benefit has been the reduction in the office cost per clerk employed.

Drawbacks of the Open Office

Open offices are not without their drawbacks or limitations. They suffer from many drawbacks, more important of which are listed below:

1. Absence of privacy. Privacy can never be maintained in an open office since everything is done in full view of all the staff.

2. Untidy and unbusiness-like appearance. If it is not maintained properly it appears to be untidy, shabby unbusiness-like. This tells badly on the morale and efficiency of the office workers.

3. Regimented. If an open office is too much regimented to maintain tidinesss, it will look like a factory with all its depressing atmosphere. This certainly leaves a bad impression in the minds of people who visit the office.

4. Impersonal atmosphere. In a large open office the atmosphere is

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impersonal. The worker feels little attachment to his place of work and this may create problems for the management.

5. Noisy. The efficiency of the workers decreases due to communal noise of all types, of which the telephone is the main offender.

6. Unhealthy. Large open office is generally not good even from the point of view of the health of workers. Infectious diseases can be easily passed on from one person to another due to bad ventilation and crowding of workers at one place.

7. Erosion of unity. When a change in layout results in an open-plan office, the morale of the primary working group may be affected. The closely-knit working group of small office would feel that the sense of unity has been eroded.

8. Congestion. There is also the danger among economy-minded employers (and they are the people who would consider the advantages of open plan offices) that they may squeeze too many people into an office and try to get too much in economy from joint equipment usage and savings in lighting, cooling and air-conditioning, etc.

9. Ignores individual needs. The amount of light, heat, cooling, etc. needed varies from individual to individual. The open office ignores this aspect which may lead to squabbles and misunderstandings amongst staff regarding window opening and closing, switching on or off of coolers and air-conditioners, etc.

10. Effect on the senior staff is the greatest. They are more easily disturbed by noise, personal chatter, etc. All this may reduce their efficiency greatly.

SMALL INDIVIDUAL OFFICES OR PRIVATE OFFICES

Small individual offices are no longer that popular as they used to be some decades ago. They are today made use of primarily for top managerial personnel, work of confidential nature, or work that must be isolated in order to eliminate noise. Under the private office system, a small group of staff or an executive sits in a small room which may be constructed by using pucca walls or a part of the open office is converted into cubicles through ceiling-high or door-high partition walls usually made of light wood or hardboard. These small cubicles or rooms are allotted to the managing director, departmental managers, secretary of the company and whole-time directors, etc. *Now-a-days private offices are made use of under the following conditions:*

(*i*) Top executives are to be provided with private offices for reasons of prestige. (*ii*) Work of confidential nature also requires private rooms. (*iii*) For certain meetings of the Board where policy matters, work

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on important plans and strategies or matters concerning legal and investment aspects of business are discussed. (*iii*) Work requiring absence of noise can be done properly in private rooms, *e.g.*, accounting and statitiscal work.

Advantages of Private Offices

They offer the following advantages over the open offices:

1. **Greater privacy** is ensured for confidential work and discussions.

2. They promote **personal atmosphere** and lend a sense of importance and prestige to the individual worker.

3. There is increase in **efficiency** due to the absence of noise since noise-making machines are isolated and the staff gets no opportunity to gossip and chatter.

4. They can be more tidy and **less regimented.**

5. They are more healthy places to work as only a few people sit in one room and thus transmission of diseases is less. Besides, there can be better ventilation.

Drawbacks of Private Offices

However, such types of offices have drawbacks. Some of the important disadvantages of such private offices are as follows:

1 **Uneconomical.** Much space is wasted in providing corridors and constructing walls and partitions. Considering that rents of office buildings, especially in bigger cities, are very high, the cost per square metre of used space increases by 25% to 33%.

2. **Decentralisation.** Private offices lead to greater decentralisation of certain facilities and services. Thus the cost of managing business increases in most cases.

3. **Less effective and costly supervision.** Supervision becomes less effective as the workers may not face the supervisor. Besides, more supervisors may be needed to supervise more effectively the same number of workers. This would increase the cost of supervision.

4. **Adversely affects inter-communication and flow of work.** Intercommunication is hampered because of the presence of a number of private office. Besides smooth flow of work is hindered due to the presence of walls and partitions.

5. **Hampers good lighting and ventilation.** Walls and partitions hamper good ventilation and natural light may also be obstructed.

6. **Lack of flexibility.** Layout is less flexible and changes in the layout plan cannot be made quickly because of permanent walls and partitions, etc.

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Essential Elements of Open Office

One can achieve maximum efficiency from an open office if following essential elements are incorporated in its design:

1. The full office should not be seen and thus it should be subdivided by screens, partitions, furniture and fittings, etc. The screens must not reach the ceiling and should be inter-changeable.

2. Noise deadening – and– absorption equipment should be used. Such equipment includes acoustic ceilings, wall-tiles, carpets, druggets or other sound-deadening floor covering and sound-absorbing office furniture.

3. Lighting must be appropriate. As far as possible, dependence on outside light should be minimum. It should not cause glare and should promote output.

4. The provision of services like lighting fittings, electricity points, inter-com and telephone cables, etc. should allow for great flexibility.

5. It would be better if there is asymmetrical working space utilisation and work positions of the staff in the office should be distributed freely.

6. Working space should be minimum of 50-60 square feet per clerical worker and for higher staff space calculations should be worked out as suggested on p. 101.

7. Noise generating machines should not be located in the open office.

8. The range of understanding of normal conversation should be restricted to 5 metres or less and the depth of noise should never exceed 40-50 phon.[1]

9. Air-conditioning is ideal for the open office. Natural ventilation allows for outside noise, humidity, heat and dust, etc. to enter the office and also there are frequent changes in temperature. Air-conditioning takes care of these problems.

SOME NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN OFFICE LAYOUT

Movable Partitions

In the West, as well as in our country, office buildings are using movable partitions in setting up private offices. These partitions are made of metal, wood, plastic or glass. In other countries, there are sound proof movable partitions. These movable partitions offer the following advantages: (*i*) They are *less costly* as against the permanent partitions. (*ii*) They provide *flexibility* in more than one way.

[1]Phons are units of loudness of sound output as it affects the human ear.

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If private rooms are not needed, partitions can be removed. Besides, quick changes in layout plan can be made to suit the changing needs of business.

Types of movable partitions. Following are the different types of movable partitions: (*i*) Ceiling-high partitions usually made of wood; (*ii*) Ceiling-high partition walls made of transparent or tinted glass, (*iii*) Ceiling-high wood and glass partitions in which lower portion is of wood, (*iv*) Partitions of wood and glass up to the door level, usually up to 7 feet, (*v*) Folding partitions of wood or plastic up to ceiling or door level height; (*vi*) Dwarfed or counter-high partitions of wood, or low rails of steel, brass or wood to separate the general office from the private offices.

Modular units. Modular units have become very popular in the West. These units normally consist of a combined desk and file cabinet with a working surface on the top of each, and dwarfed partitions up to a height of 4 feet to 6 feet. These units offer the benefits of privacy, easy access to working materials, and economy of space. Unitising an extension of the principle of modular unit, is also a popular device in the West for saving space and at the same time providing employees an element of privacy.

Office Space or Layout Planning

Proper planning of layout is important to achieve maximum efficiency and comfort. It is good to apply a scientific approach to office space planning. To achieve the proper type of office space planning, following *steps in layout* are suggested:

1. Fixing responsibility. Usually the task of office layout planning is to be performed by the office manager. If the organisation is large, it would be desirable to appoint a *Layout Planning Committee* consisting of a top executive as chairman, the office manger and the departmental heads. The office manager will act as the secretary of this committee to coordinate its work. However, where methods or planning department exists, this task is performed by this department. Whatever be the agency of execution of space planning, its authority should be properly defined.

2. Plan of organisation. Once a person has been assigned the responsibility of layout of the office, he should make himself familiar with the plan of organisation and the principal procedures. He should also see that the current procedures are the best. If it is not so, it would be only proper to simplify the procedures first and take up the task of layout later.

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3. Discussion and advice. Each supervisor and department head

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should be told to discuss the space requirements and the direction and plan of work-flow of all operations in the office; and their suggestions and comments should be sought. Discussion and advice are necessary to (*a*) provide individuals to have a closer view of the problem, in the light of their needs; and (*b*) fulfil the requirement that managerial personnel must be consulted if and when changes are made in the setup.

4. Estimating space requirements. Along with the process of discussion and advice, it would be essential to estimate space requirements for each department and the organisation as a whole. It is quite difficult to make a definite suggestion as to the exact space which must be provided to each clerical worker, supervisor, executive or top executive. In estimating space requirements, it is necessary to keep the following points in mind:

(*i*) The *status* of the employee;

(*ii*) The machine, *equipment*, etc. used by an employee;

(*iii*) the size and scale of *furniture*;

(*iv*) the space needed around the work desk for *movement* of people and flow of work;

(*v*) the constraints imposed by the over-all space availability; and

(*vi*) the philosophy of the management as to how each employee is to be treated in the matter.

Space for an ordinary clerical employee. There is no systematic study available in our country about the quantity of usable space to be made available to each employee. It is for each office to fix up this space for each of its employees. It is recommended to give at least 50 square feet of useable space, which is arrived at as follows:

4 Foot desk and chair,	$4' \times 5' = 20$ square feet
Aisle for desk,	$1\frac{1}{2}' \times 4' = 6$ square feet
Miscellaneous (files, aisles, etc.)	$= 24$ square feet
Total	$= 50$ square feet.

This quantity must be considered as the bare minimum and in fact, the scale should be much higher, if possible, say, 70 square feet or more.

Space for supervisors and executives. It is obvious that a much higher scale is needed for top, intermediate and supervisory executives depending upon the status and work requirements of each executive. The following scales are suggested for them:

Supervisory executive	100-120 square feet
Intermediate executive	200-250 square feet
Top executive	350-400 square feet.

The scales suggested cannot be the last words in the matter of cal-

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culation of space requirements. The author has visited some offices, in which some of the clerical workers, supervisors, middle-level executives and top executives occupy a fraction of the space suggested, for example, a medium-sized publishing firm has a small cubicle of 60 square feet or so for its managing director. On the other hand in some Government and semi-Government organisations, the space provided to clerical workers is much more. The scales should be reasonable and fair both to the employee as well to the firm keeping in view the work needs and status of the employee.

Devising space requirements form. The individual or committee appointed for layout should devise a suitable form to gather information about space requirements from different departments. The following form is suggested for the purpose which can be suitably amended by an office to suit its own requirements.

FORM FOR CALCULATING SPACE REQUIREMENTS

Department _____ Section _____

Type of Staff	*No.*	*Scale*	*Space Needed*	*Special Considerations*	*Total Space Needed*	*Remarks*
1. Clerical Workers						
2. Supervisors						
3. Intermediate Executives						
4. Top Executives						
5 Others						
6. Misc. Requirement						
TOTAL						

Space requisitioned by _____ (Sectional/Department Head)

Remarks of the Office Manager/Committee _____

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Space approved _____ sq. metres/sq. feet

Approved by _____ (Office Manager/ Committee Chairman)

The space requirements received on this form from a department or section are thoroughly examined. The space needed by each department is added to find out the total for the organisation or a division.

5. Blueprint. Reference to the blueprint is to be made; and then a drawing to scale is to be prepared showing doors, windows, columns, partitions, passages, etc.

6. Use of modelling. The above step is to be followed by formulating a tentative plan of office layout by arranging templates or models on the scale-drawing which has been made. In this process, the principles of good office layout are to be observed. If certain principles are to be compromised, it must be done in the light of the objectives of the organisation. It may take much time and thought to arrange and rearrange templates or models until the right plan of layout is found. At this stage, it would be desirable to get final approval from all personnel directly affected.

7. Identification of items of equipment. Identify all items of equipment, furniture and machines on the layout plan and then label all the pieces of equipment, etc., to correspond and then make the actual move at a time when confusion is the least.

Layout of a Department

Each department's layout should be carefully integrated into the

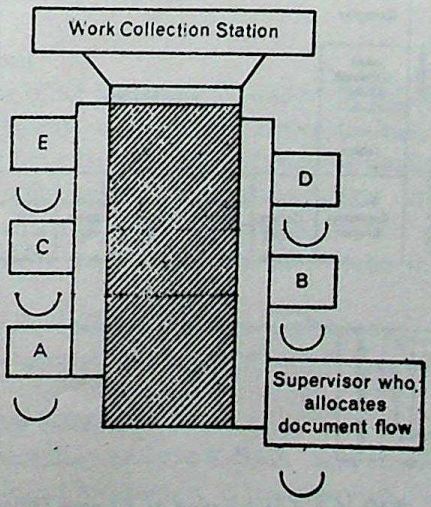

FIG. 6.1. Application of Henry Ford's Principle to the Office.

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total layout plan. Besides, the layout plan of each department of the office should incorporate the ideas that go into the preparation of the total layout plan. Within a department, the flow of work should be direct and smooth and the supervisor should have an uninterrupted view of the personnel under his control. The idea of Henry Ford as applied to a department in a factory can be applied to the office. The preceding diagram illustrates this concept.

Mistakes to be Avoided in Layout

While laying out office, it is necessary to avoid errors of the following types to obtain the best results:

1. **Following the original plan.** There is a tendency for the executives to follow the original plan even when work requirements have changed drastically. This should be avoided. Old example cannot be always an example of efficiency and smooth flow of work.

2. **Heavy partitions.** Quite often, there is a tendency to separate various offices and corridors with heavy built-in partitions. This means that if the management wants to make any changes, they will be costly and time-consuming. Besides, the office work may get dislocated for a long time leading to chaos and loss of work.

3. **More space for some departments.** It is often found that more

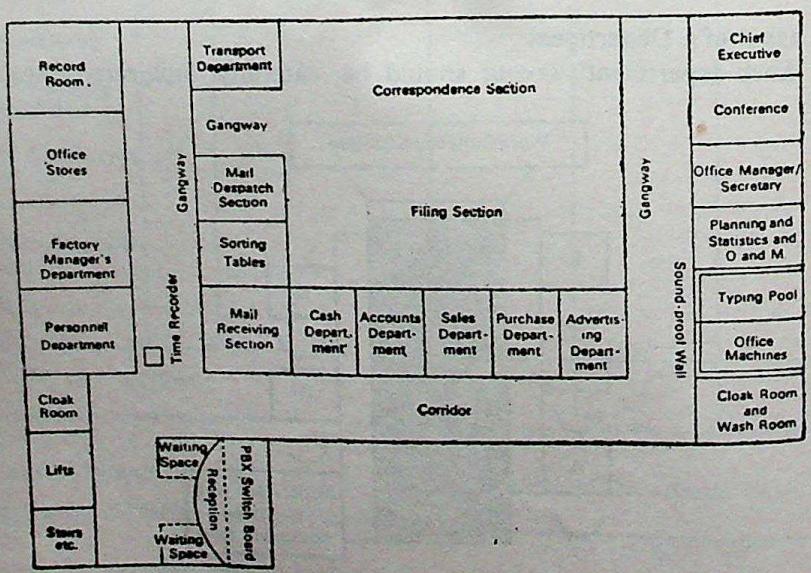

FIG. 6.2. Layout plan of a Large Office.

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vocal executives get their departments more space than is warranted by their departmental requirements. Thus the layout process will fail badly to provide adequate space for different processes and activities. It is, therefore, necessary that the layout should be prepared by a person who has an overall viewpoint and sufficient authority to ensure fair and equitable space allocations for the smooth flow of work.

4. Lack of proper knowledge. Many a time, department managers and supervisors are allowed to plan the layouts for their respective departments without any advice and assistance from the systems, methods or procedures group. This may mean waste of space and the resultant inefficiency. Thus it would be desirable that department managers and supervisors receive proper technical advice about layout from the systems department, where it exists.

Ideal Layout

Layout plan can never be standardised. It has to differ from organisation to organisation since every organisation has its own goals on the basis of which the importance, or otherwise, of an individual department in the organisation would depend. The location of each department in the plan may thus get affected. Also the ideal layout can be ideal only for some period of time. Thus it has to be changed in accordance with the changing needs of business. The maxim for an ideal layout is: least floor space occupancy (and consequently least cost) and the optimum flow of work. The two problems of cost and flow of work must be reconciled.

New Office Layout

A need for new office layout arises under the following situations:

1. If new *company organisation structure* has been devised and some deartments have been either separated or amalgamated.
2. A study of *office systems* indicates changes in documents flow, eliminating all or part of these documents.
3. *New equipment* and machines have been introduced into the office.
4. A move to *new building* or office is planned.
5. The *staff complains* consistently about the layout.

Planning the Office Move

If it becomes necessary to have a fresh layout either in the same location or a different location, it is necessary to plain the movement to the new office carefully. The following points are worth-noting:

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1. Layout planning. It would be necessary to have proper layout planning as per the steps already suggested.

2. Forming movement committee. It is suggested that a movement committee be formed for the purpose. This committee should be headed by a top executive under whose over-all charge movement is planned and executed. The departmental heads should be the members. Each department should have a sub-committee which should be headed by the departmental head, who in turn would be assisted by one to two assistants depending upon the size and nature of movement. The departmental sub-committee shall get things done in the department for the move. On the day when the office is moved, these assistants or deputies help to coordinate move, answer questions, direct traffic to their destination and see that the items are placed in correct locations for which they are meant.

3. Preparing a check list. It is necessary to prepare a checklist for the move which is given below:

A. Checklist for planning move:

Arrangements for :

(*i*) *Building directory* showing new locations.

(*ii*) *Moving company*.

(*iii*) *Cleaning* all furniture, rugs, carpets, curtains, etc.

(*iv*) *Stationery* purchases like new letterheads, envelopes and other printed matter.

(*v*) *Telephone* changes or request for new members.

(*vi*) *Telex* changes or request for new connections.

(*vii*) Request for *utility services* in advance, *e.g.*, electricity, water, etc.

B. Follow up on delivery of new machines and furniture:

(*i*) Machines.

(*ii*) Desks.

(*iii*) Chairs.

(*iv*) Equipment and accessories.

Notify:

(*i*) The shareholders, debentureholders, depositors, etc.

(*ii*) The bankers, insurers, stock exchange, etc.

(*iii*) The auditors, legal advisers, management consultants, etc.

(*iv*) The Government departments.

(*v*) Local post office.

(*vi*) Publishers of journals , periodicals, etc.

(*vii*) Customers.

(*viii*) Suppliers.

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C. Sell all obsolete furniture and equipment.

D. Notify in the newspapers if changed to different location or if telex and telephone members are changed.

This checklist will help in orderly and swift move of the office by those items which are located close to the entrance. Besides, persons like electricians, carpenters and movers, etc., should be informed of the schedule of shifting.

4. Tagging. All items of equipment, furniture and machinery should be properly tagged, and also numbered. The tags should indicate the department to which a piece of equipment belongs. This saves on time and also misplacement. Tags of different colours can be used for each department or each floor, *e.g.*, white for ground floor, red for the first floor and so on. Also if a particular piece of furniture, etc., belongs to a particular executive, this fact should be indicated on the tag.

5. Timing move. Shifting to a new layout is done best when there is least disturbance to the normal functioning of the office. It is ideal to schedule a move when one or two holidays occur, *e.g.*, the second Saturday holiday combined with Sunday allows for a fairly large span of time (over sixty hours). It is necessary to arrange for an adequate number of crew or labourers and trucks, etc. to move the office.

6. Actual move. It would be desirable to move only one section at a time. Simultaneous move of two or more sections may create confusion and delay. Also items located in remote and farthest areas should be moved first, which should be followed.

QUESTIONS

1. State briefly the factors to be considered while providing office accommodation. Does suburban location score over urban location?
2. As newly appointed Office Manager of a large organisation, you are asked to select a suitable premises for an administrative office to be opened in Delhi. Explain which considerations will affect your decision. (*Co. Secy. Prel. '80*)
3. What is office space planning? Discuss the factors that influence office space planning. (*Jammu Uni. '80*)
4. Describe the important considerations to determine the space requirements in an office. (*Jammu Uni. '80*)
5. Discuss the principles of office layout. (*Delhi B. Com*)
6. What is office layout? What is its importance? What are its objectives?
7. What factors would you take into account while laying out an office? Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of a large open office compared with the small individual office.
8. State the different types of office layout. Also state the advantages of good layout?

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9. Explain briefly the systems approach to office layout. Can you achieve an ideal layout?

10. Your M.D. wants you to help in designing the open office. Explain the factors or elements that you would take into account in its design.

11. Your office has constructed its own building. As the controller, you have been asked to finalise the plan for move. You have also been told to affect the move. How would you plan and affect the move?

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Chapter 7

OFFICE ENVIRONMENTS

WHAT CONSTITUTES ENVIRONMENTS?

ENVIRONMENTS can be described as surroundings, when used with reference to the physical existence of man. They can also be described as conditions which influence the development and growth of man when used with reference to things non-physical. In any business organisation (or a social institution), thus, there are *two* types of environments: (*i*) *Physical environments, e.g.,* furniture, equipment, light, ventilation, etc., and (*ii*) *Non-physical environments, i.e.,* the organisational environments in which a person works.

The subject-matter of this chapter is the physical environment. Some of the physical environments, like furniture equipment, machines, etc. are studied in some other chapter of the Book.

IMPORTANCE OF OFFICE ENVIRONMENT

Physical working conditions are the life of an office. An office may be properly laid out and the best type of furniture and equipment is installed; but its efficiency may be very low if the physical working conditions are not good. Staff may be most unhappy if ventilation or lighting is poor or other physical conditions are not conducive to work. It is common knowledge that mental work is more fatiguing than physical work; and clerical operations are mental work. Where adverse physical conditions exist in an office, the mental strain increases. The emotional response of workers is better if the environments are good. Thus we can say that physical conditions do affect the working in the office. Terry[1] rightly remarks that "an individual's performance is significantly conditioned by the environment in which the employee works. The cumulative total effect of his total work environment is a strong determinative in how well he marshalls his abilities and skills,

[1]Terry, *op. cit.*

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his attitude towards his work and his co-peers, and his enthusiasm for his work."

Environment and Psychology of Human Behaviour

The following points are worth-noting in this context:

(*i*) A properly designed work setting can provide an individual with a great *sense of security* by allowing him to control the people and machinery with whom and which he interacts.

(*ii*) Environment reflects the *leadership styles*. Also freedom of an individual to innovate with reference to his physical environments improves response.

(*iii*) The increasing role of more *sophisticated machines* in the office in our country is bound to have an important impact on the individual in the office. It is becoming increasingly necessary to synthesise the machines with the environments in which they operate. The environments must break the monotony of over-mechanisation and provide him with a sense of relief.

DIFFERENT PHYSICAL CONDITIONS

Layout must take care of the environments. Changing needs of physical conditions must be considered as an integral part of the office management process. As the office systems change, the staff needs change and the layout is changed, office environment be changed suitably. Let us now consider some of the important parts of environment.

OFFICE LIGHTING

Lighting is perhaps the most important of all the physical conditions of the office. Bad light causes eye-strain and fatigue to workers which are the cause of bad handwriting, bad carbon copies and incorrect figure work. In a test experiment conducted by the Bureau of Internal Revenue of the US Government, it has been conclusively proved that better lighting improves efficiency by at least five per cent.[1] Proper lighting is important because it offers of following advantages: (*i*) It results in *less fatigue*. (*ii*) It results in *fewer errors*. (*iii*) Good lighting *promotes more work* and the cost of clerical work is less. (*iv*) Good lighting means *fewer absence* of workers. (*v*) It promotes *higher morale* amongst workers. (*vi*) It also leads to *greater aesthetic satisfaction*

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(*vii*) Employee *turnover is also lower* due to some of the above factors of employee morale. (*viii*) Good lighting lends *greater prestige* to the office and projects a good image of the organisation.

Factors in Good Lighting

There are *three* basic factors in good lighting. They relate to (*a*) quantity of light; (*b*) brightness of light; and (*c*) diffusion of light.

(*a*) **Quantity of light.** It is necessary that the correct quantity of light is available for different types of work in the office. The lighting requirements of different kinds of work are determined with reference to the measure called a "*foot-candle.*" Foot-candle is "the quantity of light falling on one square foot to the inner surface of a sphere of one foot radius at the centre of which is placed one international candle." On a rough estimate one watt per square foot of area provides 15 foot-candles. Recommended standards of lighting are shown in Table 7.1.

TABLE 7.1. RECOMMENDED VALUES FOR ILLUMINATING OFFICE WORK[1]

Type of Office work	*Foot-candles recommended*
Detailed drafting and designing	200
Difficult seeing task (auditing, book-keeping, accounting, tabulating, business machine operation, etc.)	150
Ordinary seeing tasks (private office work, work in conference rooms, active file rooms, mail rooms, and general correspondence)	100
Casual seeing tasks (inactive file rooms, washrooms, stairways, reception rooms and other service areas)	30

(*b*) **Brightness of light.** Brightness of light is another important factor in lighting. It can be described as the amount of light reflected from an object. It is the reflected light which helps in seeing. Thus it

[1]Recommended by Illuminating Engineering Society, New York, USA.

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would be necessary to be careful about this aspect. Brightness also controls *contrast*, which affects seeing. So far as contrast is concerned *two facts must be remembered. Firstly*, too great a contrast causes glare, which comes either from the source of light or from an over-polished surface. *Secondly*, greatest visibility is attained if there is a maximum colour contrast between writing and its background, *e.g.*, black writing on a white sheet of paper.

(*c*) **Diffusion of light.** Light must be properly diffused and thus it should not be absolutely uniform. It does not mean that the light should be monotonous. It would be desirable to use proper fixtures. Proper diffusion of light can be obtained by having light in different amounts come from an adequate number of sources and directions.

Sources of Light

There are *two sources* of light in a modern office: (*i*) the *sun* and (*ii*) the *electricity*. The sun is the source of natural light while other is the source of artificial light. Thus there are two types of lighting: (*i*) natural lighting; and (*ii*) artificial lighting.

Natural lighting. Daylight is the best form of lighting. It is, therefore, necessary that a maximum use of it may be made wherever possible. Natural lighting offers a number of *advantages* chief of which are: (*i*) It is *economical.* No fittings are needed and there is no recurring expenditure. Only thing to be done is to make adequate provision while laying out the office. (*ii*) It is also *healthy and strains the eye less.*

How best to use sunlight? We find that in some government and private offices in our country very little use of this source is being made. In England, this problem received the attention of the Government about a quarter of a century ago. A Government report, the Lighting of Office Buildings, was published in England in 1952 which gives the following *suggestions* to improve the day lighting: (*i*) *minor changes* in structure to make windows more effective; (*ii*) the use of *external reflectors*; (*iii*) the use of *diffusing glasses* to redirect lighting in rooms where it is most needed; (*iv*) *better colour schemes*, through painting; (*v*) *re-arrangement of the furniture* and equipment; and (*vi*) use of *supplementary artificial lighting*. However, in a hot country like ours direct sunlight, especially in summers is most unwelcome. Buildings facing East, West or South (especially facing South) can get adequate daylight for a major part of the day in our country. Therefore, it is necessary to make proper use of sunshades. In fact, the architectural design of the office building should take into account the need for daylight. It would be necessary to clean windows and venti-

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lators regularly, otherwise it may not at all be possible to take advantage of the sulight even if the building is well designed to get sufficient natural light.

Artificial lighting. It is not possible to control the amount of sunlight in a room, but artificial light can be used in a manner which serves

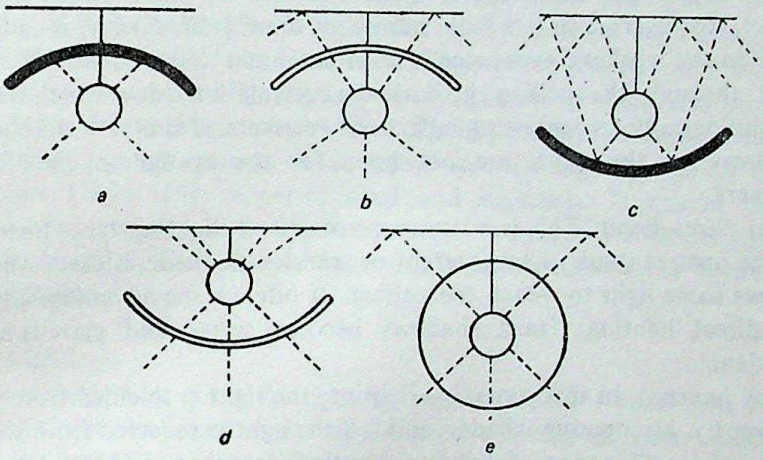

FIG. 7.1. Different types of Lighting: (*a*) Direct, (*b*) Semi-direct, (*c*) Indirect, (*d*) Semi-indirect, and (*e*) General lighting.

the purpose. There are some portions of the office building which either do not get any sunlight or get in inadequate quantity. Some stairways, inner rooms, basements, record rooms and certain nooks and corners of buildings do not get enough natural light necessary for the purpose of the office work. Thus natural light may be supplemented with the artificial light.

Factors in artificial lighting. Artificial lighting is to be provided in the office after carefully considering the following *factors:* (*i*) *Cost of installation* has to be considered while introducing artificial lighting. The cost must be analysed in relation to the possible requirements of lighting in relation to the layout and the type of activity which is carried on in different rooms. (*ii*) *Cost of maintenance* of the artificial lighting system should be the minimum. The repairs may be carried out easily and without dislocating the office work. (*iii*) *Eye strain* should be minimum so that mental fatigue is the least and the health of the eyes of the workers is taken care of. (*iv*) *Heat* of the artificial lighting system is a factor to be considered. Mercury lamps often cause great heat (besides glare) and prove a source of discomfort in summers.

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Types of artificial lighting. There are five basic *types* of artificial lighting which can be used in office. One or the other type of lighting can be used or a combination of them can be used to suit particular needs.

(*a*) *Direct.* In this, the light is focussed on the object of work or table with the help of an opaque shade which directs all the light downwards. It has the *advantage of good intensity* of light on the work object. However, it suffers from numerous *drawbacks. Firstly*, it causes glare to the workers' eyes since it is intense and hard. *Secondly*, the light through the ceiling in darkness casts dark shadow which have psychologically a depressing effect on workers. *Thirdly*, hard black shadows on the work are not good for the eyesight of the office workers.

(*b*) *Semi-direct.* This is a variation of direct lighting type. Instead of the opaque shade, a transparent or translucent shade, is used, which allows some light to reach the ceiling. It offers some advantages over the direct lighting. Hard shadows become softer and glare is also eliminated.

(*c*) *Indirect.* In this type of lighting, the light is shielded from the viewer by an opaque shade, and all the light is reflected from walls and ceiling. This type of lighting has the advantage of being soft and well-diffused and is free of shadows. This type of lighting may be good for the committee room or corridors but is otherwise unsuitable for work requiring more intense lighting, *e.g.*, the clerical work.

(*d*) *Semi-indirect.* In this type of lighting (which is variation of the indirect type), the light is shielded from the viewers' eyes by a transparent or translucent shade and most of the light is reflected light. However, about 10-35% of the light is received direct through the shade. This light has the benefit of balance and it combines the advantage of the direct light with that of the indirect light. Maximum benefit of this type of lighting can be derived if shades are kept clean.

(*e*) *General.* It is a type of lighting in which the light source (bulb) is surrounded by a translucent shade, so that the light falls equally above and below the fitting itself. This type of lighting has the advantage of greater diffusion. However, it has its own drawbacks. *Firstly*, it is not possible to have correct intensity of light. *Secondly*, it may prove to be expensive because the shading of light may take away 33 per cent of its power.

Fluorescent Lighting Versus Incandescent Lighting

Fluorescent tube lighting is becoming increasingly popular in homes,

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factories and offices in our country. In the case of fluorescent lighting, the light is generated from fluorescent powders coated on the inside of a glass tube and is activated by an electric discharge, through mercury vapour. The flourescent lighting offers a number of *advantages:* (*i*) It is *economical* because the same amount of light can be obtained with much less current consumption[1] (*ii*) It is *evenly diffused*, causes no glare because of its softness. (*iii*) In fact, in terms of character and quality, it is *the natural light*. With the recent advances in flourescent lighting, shades can be fitted to tube lights. However, its main *drawback* is that flourescent lighting is a *costly system to instal and maintain.* Up to recent times, *incandescent light* has been the chief source of artificial lighting systems. It has its own advantages as against the flourescent light. It is cheaper to instal and maintain. It has its own drawbacks, namely, it is less economical to run, it is a harder light and causes glare. Due to these factors, it is getting replaced by fluorescent lighting.

Best Lighting

There is no best kind of lighting suitable for all offices, as the lighting should be suited to the requirements of every individual office. Thus the best lighting is one that suits the requirement of a particular office. However, to have a good lighting the following *factors* must be considered: (*i*) equipment, (*ii*) nature of work, (*iii*) colour scheme for walls and furniture, (*iv*) colour of the paper used for work, (*v*) lighting can be varied or not, (*vi*) running and maintenance costs in the case of artificial lighting, and (*vii*) quality and appearance of shades used.

REDUCTION OF NOISE

Office work requires much mental concentration. Thus it is necessary that surroundings should be such that do not cause mental irritation. Noise is a great disturber and causes mental irritation (and consequently fatigue) to the office worker. This results in more errors, low quality of work, delays, slowing down of pace of work and lower output of office work. *Noise may be an occasional or an unusual loud sound or a constant loud sound.* Whatever be the nature of noise, it disturbs the worker. Occasional sharp sounds are very irritating for the workers and distract their attention. Continuous sound is also quite irritating to workers although they get used to it. Their efficiency is still affected

[1]It has been estimated that it provides light compared to that of the incandescent lamp at half the current consumption.

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by such a noise. There are *two ways to measure the noise. First* is the *decibel*, which can be described as the objective measurement of the intensity of sound. *Second* is the *phon*, which is directly related to what human beings find tolerable. In the latter case noise meters test sound.

Types of Noise

There are two types of noise depending upon the area where it is generated. One is the external noise and the other is the internal noise.

External noise. External noise can be avoided if the office is located in a quiet part of the town but often it is not possible. In such a case the office building may be located as far back as possible from the noisy road. The noise can be deadened by shutting all the doors and windows. Doors and windows, however, cannot be shut completely which may lead to bad ventilation, foul air and excessive heat. Doors and windows can be closed to keep out the noise if airconditioning system is used but its cost in the context of our country is prohibitive. In these circumstances, it may be possible to use double doors, automatic door closers and *battles* for doors and windows, and sound proofing material can be used for walls and ceilings. Modern buildings are made of steel and concrete which increase the intensity of the noise made by traffic on the road. Modern cities are full of noise and the office has to put up with the noises made by passing vehicles, trains and other traffic. External noise enters the office through doors, windows and ventilators. Besides, acoustics can be used to prevent walls from vibrating and increasing the noise.

Internal noise. In most offices, this is a more important factor that the external noise. It is caused by a variety of factors, such as, rattling of papers, people talking to each other and walking from one place to another, scraping of chairs on the floor, operation of different office machines and equipment, noisy fans, telephone bells, conversation on telephone, call bells and operation of toilets, etc. The effect of the internal noise gets increased because of the present day building material.

Control of internal noise. Internal noise is easy to control and the office manager can take the following *steps* to minimise or eliminate it:

1. *Use of sound-absorbent material.* Sound absorbent material can be used on floor, walls and ceilings for general absorption of sound. A variety of sound absorbing materials are now available in our country out of which hard board and wood are the cheapest.

2. *Steps for local absorption.* Steps for local absorption of sound can

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be taken by placing felt pads under office machines and equipment.

3. *Separation of noisy machines.* Noisy machines can be put into a separate room. Thus their noise is isolated and sound absorbent panels can be erected.

4. *Use of buzzers and lights.* Telephone bells can be replaced by buzzers or light indicators wherever possible.

5. *Use of door closers and swing doors.* Doors may be fitted with door closers and rubber lining may also be used for doors. Swing doors can also be used where the incoming and outgoing traffic is high.

6. *Separate interviews.* Confidential interviews may be held in small quiet room away from noise of different types.

7. *Use of furnishings.* Floor convering and use of curtains also reduce the noise because they absorb sound.

8. *Conversing in low tone.* Instructions must be issued to workers to converse in low tone so that there is minimum distraction for others.

9. *Keeping workers busy.* Workers may also be kept sufficiently busy so that there is little time for gossip.

VENTILATION

Ventilation is a very common problem in all offices. Lack of proper ventilation makes the air stale and surroundings unhealthy resulting in stuffiness, undue fatigue, drowsiness and slowing down of work. *Ventilation in the office is the supply of clean and fresh air in the right quantity and at the right temperature and humidity.* In colder months in North India, it would be necessary to keep out too much cold air while in the summer months, hot and humid air has to be kept out. In warmer parts of the country, the problem is of keeping the hot air out for most part of the year.

Providing Good Ventilation

Provision for adequate ventilation can be made in the blueprint of the layout. Following *methods* can be adopted for ensuring proper ventilation: (*i*) *Enough doors, windows and ventilators* of the right type at the correct places are provided. This would ensure regular inflow of fresh outside air and outflow of stale air (*ii*) *Exhaust fans* must be provided in the toilets, basements, crowded rooms, canteens, machine rooms, etc., so that the warm air is let out and fresh air enters through windows and doors. (*iii*) *Airfilters* can be used so that the outside air which enters into the office becomes dust-

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free. (*iv*) *Air-conditioning* can be a good method of providing ventilation. The air-conditioners bring in dust-free air. This method has become popular with the offices of some large enterprises. However, air conditioning is a very expensive method and hence has a limited application in the context of our country.

Temperature and Humidity: Heating, Cooling and Air-Conditioning

Temperature and humidity are two vital factors in the office that exercise a great influence over the worker and his output. Excess heat and humidity result in drowsiness and discomfort. The work slows down and results in low output in the office especially when heat levels are high during the hot summer afternoon of our country. On the other hand, excessive cold during winter months in the continental north of our country causes numbness to limbs and reduces the output of the office workers in general. The American Society of Heating and Ventilating Engineers and the United States Public Health Service have found that the most healthful and comfortable temperature for normal people working in offices, shops and homes is below 70°F. But this level of temperature can be comfortable only if proper humidity or moisture is maintained. Fans, air coolers, air conditioners and heaters may be used to keep the right kind of temperature.

Use of fans. Fans are a very cheap and popular device to cool homes, offices and factories in our country. They come in different designs and shapes. They can be classified as pedestal fans, table fans, wall fans and ceiling fans. Fans help to keep the air in motion in a given room, and moving air cools the body. Fans have one great *limitation*, *i.e.*, they do not lower the temperature of a work-room. Thus during strong summers, they do not reduce the sufferings of the office worker. However, to derive the best advantage from fans, it is necessary to place fans in a manner that the paper work is not disturbed due to strong air flow.

Use of air-coolers. Air-coolers have become very popular in offices and homes in our country, especially in drier parts of the country. Air-coolers draw in the air which passes through water vapours and becomes cool. Air-coolers are available in various designs and shapes. The air coolers can be *portable coolers*, which are small and light. The other variety of air coolers is that of *large fixed type* which can be fixed to the outside of a window. Such air coolers, though not portable, have advantages over the other variety. They can cool a larger space. Besides, they draw in fresh air from outside (which also gets filtered to a great extent) and thus constant flow of fresh

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air is kept in the room. Air-coolers serve a limited purpose. They are useful during the dry parts of the summer. In the warm and wet parts of the year, they become useless since their main function is to cool the air through the process of moistening.

Air-conditioners. "Air-conditioning in an office contributes to mental activity and boosts the efficiency of the employees; its liveness gives one vigour." It has been proved by tests in the USA that air-conditioning increases productivity, decreases absenteeism and brings down the level of clerical errors.[1] Air-conditioners are also available in various designs. Broadly speaking they can be described as *window or packaged type* air-conditioners and the *central air-conditioning systems.*

Advantages and drawbacks. Greatest benefit of air-conditioning is that it keeps the temperature at uniform level all through the year. Besides air-conditioning also ensures good ventilation as outside air is sucked into the room and in the process gets filtered as well. Although it is an ideal method of temperature control yet it is a very *expensive* method. It will be too long before this method is used universally in the offices in our country. However, where an organisation can afford air-conditioning, it would be necessary to make suitable provision for air-conditioning equipment in the layout plan of the office. In the case of central air-conditioning, necessary provision of pipes and ducts must be made in the building plan so that minimum expenditure is made to instal such a system.

Khus. The use of *Khus* in the offices in North India for cooling is very old and till today it finds favour with many Government and others offices in our country. It is a cumbersome method of cooling with a large amount of recurring expenditure to be incurred. Then there is the storage problem during the long period of the year when the khus is not in use.

Heating. Heating is needed during the winters in North India and in a few high altitude areas in South India. Although the winters are of a short duration, yet a few cold months require heating. Besides air-conditioning, heating can be done in one of the following ways:

(*i*) *Charcoal burners* are used to warm up homes and offices. This method of heating is cumbersome and expensive. It would also be necessary to provide suitable exhaust points like ventilators, chimneys,

[1]In a survey conducted by the United States General Services Administration, it was found that productivity increased by 9.5 per cent; absenteeism decreased by 2.5, per cent and clerical errors were down by about 9 per cent. *See* Neuner and Keeling, *op. cit.*)

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etc. for the smoke of the burning charcoal. The building layout must provide for chimneys and ventilators.

(*ii*) *Electric room heaters* are quite a popular device these days. Room heaters are available in different designs and shapes. The office manager must select heaters which suit his requirements. Electric points are to be provided at suitable places so that heating serves its due purpose. Electric installations should be of the desired quality so that faults are few and heating goes on smoothly. Wherever possible electric room heaters may be used.

(*iii*) *Central heating* can also be done by using charcoal, soft coke, furnance oil or electricity. Central heating is popular in the USSR, USA, Europe and other advanced countries of the world where winters are long and excessively cold. In fact, even many of the homes in those countries have central heating systems. The building layout plan should incorporate the necessary ingredients for central heating.

(*iv*) In the USA another method of heating which is becoming popular is *Flourescent light* which is used both as a source of lighting as well as heating. On a rough estimate it may be said that by the beginning of the decade of 1970s; approximately about 35% of major building construction was making use of this method. Under this method the air warmed by fluorescent tubes is sucked into ducts and distributed through the building by the ventilating system.

CLEANLINESS

A clean and tidy office is important as it offers the following *advantages*: (*i*) It is *more healthy* as a work-place for different types of office workers. (*ii*) Since people react to their surroundings, a clean and healthy office *contributes to accurracy and efficiency*. (*iii*) A clean and tidy office also *projects a good image* of the organisation in the eyes of the people who visit it.

In most Indian homes, offices and hospitals cleaning is a manual job while in the technological advanced countries, machines do this job. Office furniture and equipment must be properly dusted every day so that the dust does not accumulate on them. Naked floors, stairways and other places frequented by the staff and the public must be cleaned every day. Carpeted floors, walls and ceilings must be cleaned regularly. Besides, the carpets and tapestry used in a room must be washed or dry-cleaned regularly Furniture, windows, doors, etc., should be polished and painted from time to time. The exterior and the interior of the building should also be white-washed

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or oil-painted from time to time. The cup-boards, almirahs, racks and filing cabinets should be cleaned thoroughly from time to time. In short, every object in the office and every nook and corner should receive due attention for cleaning.

Disposal of waste. Proper disposal of waste and waste paper is also essential. Waste paper in the shape of newspapers, magazines and journals can be stored till they are sold out by auction or some other method approved by the person responsible for taking decision in this behalf.

Toilets. Proper provision of toilets and their proper cleanliness are important. In fact much of the foul air in the office may be the result of lack of sufficient provision of toilets and insanitary conditions that prevail in the toilets. Adequate number of toilets must be provided and legal requirements in this regard must also be considered. They should be conveniently located so that the staff has not to walk over long distances to reach them. If toilets are few and are located at long distances from the work centres in the office, it would cause great inconvenience and would also result in much loss of precious working time. There should be separate toilets for men and women office workers where there is a *"mixed staff"*. The toilets should be so designed that they satisfy the needs of various categories of employees. A few separate toilets for the head of the organisation and other important executives may be provided for their personal use and for the use of persons who visit them.

The toilets must be properly stocked with soap, toilet paper and towels. Paper napkins or towels are convenient and hygienic. Their use is worth a trial in the toilets of ours offices. Liquid soap is preferable to the soap cake. There should be adequate number of wash basins and mirrors in the toilets. Towels should be changed every day or after every break during the day depending upon the needs. Air purifiers must be used which must be replaced in time. Wash basins, toilet seats and mirrors must be cleaned regularly. Once in a month or two acid wash of toilet seats and wash basins may be carried out. The floors of the toilets must be thoroughly cleaned regularly. It is also necessary to use deodorants regularly to avoid stench in the toilets. The walls and ceilings of the toilets must also be thoroughly cleaned from time to time. If the walls of the toilet are covered with tiles, marble stones or mosaic coverings, it may be desirable to wash them from time to time. The cisterns must be cleaned properly. The walls, ceiling and cisterns must be white-washed or painted regularly.

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INTERIOR DECORATION

Office can be described as a show-piece as well as a work-place at the same time. To the outsiders, it is the intermediary between them and the management. To the office workers, it is the environment that stimulates (or chokes) better performance. Considering the physical part of the office, it can be said that office should give a pleasant appearance to all those who deal with it. This can be achieved through careful interior decoration. *Interior decoration can be described as the art of careful decoration of the interior of a room or a building.* Interior decoration involves a number of objects like walls, carpets, curtains, wall hangings, etc. Interior decoration thus concerns itself with colour of wall, choice of the right type of floor covering and curtains, etc.

Colour Conditioning

Colour conditioning has become an important factor in the office. Human beings are greatly influenced by colour. Colour not only adds to the decoration of the room but it also has a psychological effect on the people working in it. It is well recognised now that colour activates and stimulates the emotions. Studies have been made about the interrelation of colours and their effects on workers. Such studies are called "psychromatics"[1] which definitely point out the gains made in terms of productivity. However, it may not be possible "to attribute specific production gains to use of colour in offices; yet there are evidences that its effective use can enhance the work environment and have at least an indirect effect on employee productivity."[2]

Objectives of colour conditioning.[3] Colour conditioning has the following four major objectives:

(*i*) *Prestige.* Colour conditioning greatly influences the prestige of the organisation. The prestige of the organisation is indicated by the impression that outsiders receive, either consciously or unconsciously from the appearance. It can be said that cheerful, attactive and efficient appearing office inspires feeling of confidence and trust. On the other hand, drab, uninviting, or poorly painted office gives a feeling of doubt or mistrust. Thus colour conditioning offers the benefit of great prestige of the organisation in the minds of outsiders.

[1]Denyer, *op. cit.*
[2]Littlefield and others, *op. cit.*
[3]Neuner and Keeling, *op. cit.*

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(*ii*) *Health.* A number of studies carried out in the USA and UK and other countries suggest that colour has a great influence on the health and well-being of persons everywhere, including the office. Since colour influences the mental attitude and also eye fatigue, proper colour conditioning would eliminate eye fatigue and would also improve performance of the office worker.

(*iii*) *Morale.* We have just stated that proper colour conditioning influences the health of people; which in turn is bound to have a beneficial effect on the office workers. The removal of eye strain and fatigue reduces nervous tension and other bad effects. This definitely influences the attitude of the worker towards his fellow-workers, work and the organisation for which he works.

(*iv*) *Efficiency.* If the health and morale of the workers are good, the natural result is improved efficiency. Proper colour gives the worker a feeling of pride in his surroundings and also a desire to keep them neat and orderly.

Factors in colour conditioning. Colours are associated with human feelings and emotions. Following is the summary of human reaction to different colours (variations of which are to be found in modern offices):

Colour	*Result*
Red	Heat, excitement, action.
Orange	Warmth
Brown	Warmth
Yellow	Warmth
Purple	Dignity
Blue	Coolness
Green	Coolness

Choice of colours is to be made by taking into consideration a number of *factors*, chief of which are as follows:

(*i*) *Quantity of natural light.* Since natural light is the best source of light, colour should be chosen to use this source properly. Rooms facing north in Nothern, Western and Eastern India, are bound to receive lesser sunlight with bluish tinge during the greater part of the year. Thus such rooms should make use of *warm colours.* Rooms facing south (or east or west) are bound to receive greater sunlight with yellowish tinge and should use a blend of *cool colours.*

(*ii*) *Artificial lighting needs.* Colours have reflective values. Some colours have greater reflective values, like white (80%), pale green (70%), and lemon yellow (52%). Some other colours have very low

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reflective values, like dark brown (4%) and chocolate (2%). Artificial lighting needs must be considered before choosing the colour scheme. Work requiring greater reflective light would need colours having greater reflective value. It is quite usual to have ceilings in white colours in homes and offices in our country, this concept is to be changed in relation to the needs of the office. However, it would be necessary to avoid glossy surfaces which cause glare.

(*iii*) *Individual tastes.* Individual tastes of important executives, who are given separate rooms for work, are to be considered. Some of them feel more at ease with brighter colours while others may not like such colours. Thus colours of walls and ceilings may have to suit the requirements of the individual executives.

(*iv*) *Use of rooms, etc.* Rooms are put to different uses. Entrance halls, reception rooms, cloak rooms and corridors are often used by outsiders as well. Brighter and pleasing colours with greater reflective power are recommended for them. They would make these places more cheerful. Other accommodation would however take into account two factors, viz., the nature of work carried on in a given room, and the lighting arrangement needed to carry out the desired work. In fact it would be ideal to have different colour schemes for different rooms to give individuality to each room.

(*v*) *Dimensions of a room.* This again is an important factor. For example, high ceilings look lower when painted darker than the walls. Similarly, long and narrow rooms can look wider if darker advancing colours are put on end walls, and retreating colours on side walls.

Floor Covering, Furnishings and Wall Hangings

Floor covering, curtains and wall hangings also form a part of interior decoration. It would be thus necessary to choose the right type of such articles with right colours.

Floor covering. Proper floor covering not only reduces noise but also adds to the decoration of a place. Choise of floor covering, whether it is to be woollen or persian carpet, jute mat, coir mat, ordinary *dari* or linoleum will depend upon a number of *factors*, chief of which are: (*a*) funds, (*b*) colour scheme of the room, (*c*) the use to which the room is put and (*d*) ease in cleaning floor covering. Once a floor covering has been selected, it would be proper to clean and disinfect it (where necessary) from time to time. Persian carpets may be drycleaned occasionally to get rid of the odour and dirt. However, if it is cumbersome to clean a particular type of covering, it would be better to avoid it.

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Furnishings. Furnishings have become an important part of the physical part of the office. They have a protective as well as a decorative value. Curtains may not only decorate a window or a door, they may also prevent glare and sunshine coming into the room directly on the table of the office worker. Chair and sofa covers may enhance the look of the reception room and also of the recreation lounges for the staff. The choice of furnishings would depend upon the following *factors*:

(*a*) *Funds.* How much money is available for the purpose ?

(*b*) *Colour scheme.* Colour scheme should match the climate and the particular requirements of a department. Warmer and brighter corners may have light coloured furnishings while cooler and air-conditioned rooms may have darker and heavy colours.

(*c*) *Use.* Different rooms are used for different purposes. The selection of furnishings would be influenced by this factor.

(*d*) *Ease in cleaning.* This is another factor to be considered. Furnishings in the nature of permanent fixtures should thus be avoided.

Wall hangings and art objects. Modern organisations symbolise a nation's culture. They encourage arts and sciences. In the West they have encouraged a number of painters and sculptors who decorate the interior walls of offices. A painting hanging on the wall of the reception room, for example, breaks monotony and brings a sense of relief to the visitor. Similary a few paintings, here and there and in the executives' rooms might be hung and other art pieces may be properly displayed. They enhance the prestige of the organisation. However, hanging of calendars on walls may not add to the look of a room. It would be better to avoid them as far as possible.

SAFETY PRECAUTIONS

Safety precautions are a must. Unfortunately hardly any safety precautions are taken in the offices in this country though some precautions are taken in factories. However, it is only proper that while laying out the office due care should be taken so that accidents do not occur due to faulty wiring of machines, fans, air-coolers, air-conditioners, or telephones, etc. Stairways, passages and cooridors, etc., must be provided with adequate number of lighting points.

FIRE PRECAUTIONS

Business premises must provide for fire protection facilities because

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in an office furniture and stationery are such items which catch fire easily. Fire extinguishers can be installed at suitable places and they should be given prominent spots, so that they are easily located in case of fire. Besides, the telephone operator must know what is to be done in case of fire. Staff should also be provided with ash trays so that stray bits of cigarettes are taken care of. Main switches may also be switched off after working hours because a very large number of accidental fires have been caused by electric short-circuits.

QUESTIONS

1. What is environment? How does it effect human behaviour?
2. What do you understand by the term office environments? Explain the importance of providing good working environment to the office staff.
3. Discuss the various factors which affect the environment of an office. (*Jammu Uni. '80*)
4. Which factors would you take into account in providing the physical working conditions in an office? State why you regard each factor as important.
5. Discuss briefly the different physical conditions in the office.
6. Explain the importance of providing good working environment to the office staff. Discuss the considerations you will take into account while planning office lighting, ventilation and furnishing. (*Delhi B. Com.*)
7. Write notes on : *(a)* Noise control; *(b)* Colour conditioning. (*Jammu Uni. '80*)
8. Discuss the importance of lighting and ventilation from the point of view of efficiency of work in the office. (*Jammu Uni. '80*)
9. Why should there be emphasis on cleanliness in the office? How would you ensure cleanliness in the office?
10. Your office is planning a move to a new building. You have been told to take care of the problem of floor covering, furnishings and wall hangings. How would you perform your task?
11. "Interior decoration is now an important part of office environment." Discuss.

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Chapter 8

SECURITY

OFFICE SECURITY

Definition of Security

Security can be defined as the protection against sabotage or espionage. Office security is a very vital subject for the office manager. Office security is becoming a complex problem, even more complex than the security in the factory. There are two main reasons for this:

1. More and more offices are going in for *open offices*. These open offices are very vulnerable to intruders.
2. With high *technology* and competition, the temptation for industrial espionage is growing for new product designs.

Principles of Security

Security must be viewed as a short-range as well as long-range problem. Thus it would be desirable to observe certain principles in its planning. These principles are outlined below:

1. Principle of least cost. Like any other activity of a business, security should cost the least. Two types of costs are involved in security, *viz.*, the *long-term* costs and *short-term* costs. Long-term costs are involved in imbibing security in the layout plan and making other permanent arrangements for security. Short-term costs involve the recurring overheads essential to run the security system.

2. Principle of simplicity. Security system must be simple principally in two respects: (*i*) The employees should be easily trained in security. Each employee should be made aware of the need for security. (*ii*) The system should also be simple to put into operation. Of course, the degree of security needed for different places in the same office may differ, *e.g.*, greater and complicated security might be needed to protect the computer room because computer is an excellent source of many facts and figures.

3. Principle of flexibility. Like any other effective measure, the system must be flexible. Flexibility implies that changes in a security

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system are affected without changing much of the present layout and the organisational structure. However, if much changes are desirable in the light of changed conditions, they are carried out with great ease.

4. **Principle of adequacy.** A security system must be a adequate and should be matched with the needs of different departments and even individuals, if individuals are performing such tasks which require utmost security.

5. **Principle of fast communication.** System of security should be such that inter-communication between different members of the security staff should be fast. Uninterrupted and quick communication ensures smooth and proper working of the security system. Fast communication ensures quick dispersal of facts and ideas about security, which results in constant vigil and constant improvement.

6. **Principle of responsibility and supervision.** Responsibility for security should be fixed. Who is responsible for which part of the security must be made known to the different members of the organisation and also various members of the security staff. To check proper performance of the tasks of security, effective supervision is needed. Day-to-day supervision has to be exercised by the executive concerned in a department. Supervision has also to be exercised over the security staff which is the responsibility of the supervisors in the security staff.

Planning Security

Security, like any other activity, must be well-planned. Although a determined thief or an intruder cannot be completely stopped from entering into the office (or factory)., yet it might be possible to make his life difficult. A careful security plan tries to minimise risks and even eliminate them.

Steps in planning security. Following steps are suggested in planning security, especially in an organisation where idea of security is new:

1. *Forming committee.* It is suggested that a committee headed by a senior executive or the office manager himself be formed for the purpose. Other members should be those departmental heads (or their nominees) in whose departments security is important. The main tasks of this committee are to (*i*) devise a security system keeping in view the demands of the organisation; (*ii*) lay down authority and responsibility of individuals for the purpose; and (*iii*) study the problem of layout vis-a-vis security.

2. *Seeking information and opinions.* The committee should seek information on a properly designed form about the requirements security for different purposes in different departments. Where matters

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are confidential, the information should be gathered discreetly and without giving any kind of publicity.

3. *Formulating security plan or system.* A plan for security is to be prepared now on the basis of the information and the needs of the organisation. In formulating the security plan and evolving the security system, the committee would do well in following the principles of security already outlined.

4. *Circulating the plan or system.* Once the plan has been formulated, it should be circulated amongst those whose opinion may be useful in outlining the system; or who are to run this security system. This means an acceptance of the system by people who matter or who are to implement it.

5. *Formulating the system.* On the receipt of reactions and suggestions, the system should be outlined giving details such as: how security system has been integrated into the organisation structure, responsibility for tasks and supervision, how the system should be revised, and how security should be integrated into the layout, etc.

6. *Communicating the system.* The security plan formulated should now be communicated to those persons in the organisation who are responsible for its implementation.

7. *Recruiting employees.* Where security is a new concept or more staff is needed for the purpose, fresh hands are to be recruited.

Layout and Security

Security must be recognised as an essential part of the layout plan. Where a new building is designed for the office, security must be considered as a vital factor in its design. In the USA, England and other industrially advanced countries besides the government buildings, the office buildings in the private sector are built with security as perhaps the most important consideration. In our country too security must be considered as an essential and an important part of the layout plans of new buildings. Security is increasingly incorporated into the designs of some new office buildings.

Elements of security in new buidings. While designing a new building for the office (or factory) the following points or elements should be considered:

1. Access. The buildings should have limited access. Not every person should be able to approach every part of the building with ease. The rule for access is—limited access for places declared as security areas which involve greater risks, while there is greater accessibility for other areas.

2. Self-sufficiency. In the industrially advanced counrtries greater

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emphasis is laid on self-sufficiency in services like water and electricity. This factor is worth considering even in the case of our own offices, where *gheraos* and *bandhs* are no longer means of innocent and peaceful protest.

3. *Safety.* Safety in building design means that people inside a building are safe from attacks from protestors and thiefs. Fewer glass windows, specially thickened walls and installation of alarm systems must be considered in building design because they allow for greater safety.

Problem of security in old building. Security is a big problem in an old building, which never incorporated the idea of security as it exists to-day. However, an effort should be made to decrease security risks even in an old building. The following suggestions may be followed:

1. *Make changes* in layout, if such changes are easy and not expensive to carry out.

2. *Isolate activities* which require greater security and they may be located in a more remote corner. Back-door exits and entries must be sealed for such places.

3. There should be *tighter security checks* for personnel entering the higher security zones in the office.

Security in Practice

Following points are worth-noting with regard to a security system when it is put into practice:

1. **Identification and entry passes.** People entering the building should be properly identified and entry passes should be issued to them. A stricter vigilance in the issue of passes will have to be exercised for areas or departments which require a stricter security check.

2. **Cash section entry.** For any intruder the cash department or section is the most tempting target. It is thus necessary to locate it in a very safe part of the building and restrict entry to this part through careful screening, etc. However, there are certain institutions like banks, government treasuries, development authorities, universites, where cash section cannot be located in a remote part of the building. In all such cases, it would be desirable to barricade the cashier and the cash through proper means. In banks strong rooms should be designed. Elsewhere good and heavy safes should be used for keeping cash.

3. **Using alarms and warning system.** It is essential to instal alarms and warning systems so that emergencies are met with effectively and

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in time.

Training and Discipline in Security

The best security system is useless unless every employee is trained and disciplined in the matter of the observance of security. The employees have to be told about the need for security, and trained accordingly. They should be convinced that the data and papers that they handle have a vital importance. Following points in this regard should be noted:

1. During the lunch times or when the employees leave their desks for a long time, desks are often left unguarded and confidential papers are not put away securely. Besides, desk locks in an office are of the same kind and can be opened with a single key.
2. Many filing cabinets can be opened easily, even if locked. The metal of these filing cabinets is thin and can thus be forced.
3. The office staff should be aware of the security risks of the papers they handle. Documents should be appropriately classified and access to them restricted.
4. Only regular employees of the organisation should handle confidential work.
5. All papers which are even remotely important and can be misused should be destroyed. Serious leaks can usually take place in the duplicating or photocopying rooms. All spoilt copies should be destroyed.
6. Visiting mechanics and engineers can be a danger to security since they have a freer access to office machines and equipment and can come across valuable confidential information.
7. Although industrial spying is not a common phenomenon in our country, yet all such organisations which have secret formulas, patents processes, etc. should forewarn its employees of such a possibility.

Security Manual

In business organisations or government departments, where security is an important part of the functioning, it would be reasonable to prepare a *Security Manual.* Such a manual should contain the following:

1. *Classification* of activities into different categories requiring security arrangements.
2. *Organisation* for security defining the authority-responsibility of employees.
3. *Remedial action* where security leaks take place.
4. *Revision* of the security manual by whom and when.

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Computer Security

Computers have started gaining some popularity in our country as more large-sized firms have started using them. It is time that we take stock of computer security. In the industrially advanced countries great attention is being paid to computer security since computer data processing is vulnerable to those who want to tamper with or destroy it. Coming years may see a kind of social disruption not witnessed in the fifties, sixties or seventies; and the central computer room may be the target.

Causes of Breach of Computer Security

There are two groups of causes of breach of security; which are as follows :

1. External causes. External causes can be classified as (*i*) *natural* hazards; and (*ii*) criminal intent.

2. Internal causes. Internal causes are the result of the criminal intention of the computer personnel who have access to the computer and the data it possesses. Besides, computer security may be breached by sheer negligence by the computer personnel. These causes are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Natural hazards. Natural hazards are fire and flood. Of the two, fire is more important.

To prevent fire from starting it would be necessary to take the following *precautions:* (*a*) Non-inflammable material should be used for walks, floors and ceilings; (*b*) As a rule, there should be no smoking in the computer room. Besides, all inflammable materials should be removed; (*c*) Files should be stored in fire-proof safes or rooms; and (*d*) Computer staff should be properly trained in meeting a contingency in case a fire breaks out.

So far as floods are concerned a few office buildings are located in flood-prone areas. However, no chances should be taken and following precautions should be taken: (*a*) Where floods are constantly taking place, computer room should be located either on the first or a higher floor; (*b*) Flood barriers should be installed, if necessary; (*c*) Adequate pumping facilities must be installed to meet emergencies.

Criminal intent. There is the risk of criminal intent both on the part of the outsiders and the insiders. Sometimes there may be a collusion between the outsiders and insiders, which may prove to be the most dangerous.

There should be a very strict security check for all the outsiders who enter the computer room especially the engineers and technicians

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who have a ready access to the computer. To avoid criminal misuse of the computer and the data by outsiders it is suggested that a careful watch be kept on them, so that they are not able to destroy the computer or render it useless.

Insiders can render the computer useless or destory it with great ease since their loyalty cannot be questioned. Insiders may harm the computer due to the following one or more reasons: (*a*) Some employees are maladjusted and may suffer a real or imagined injustice and may, therefore, try to harm the computer; (*b*) Mob fury may result in destroying the computer room; and (*c*) As already stated, the insiders may collude with outsiders for purposes of gaining money.

To eliminate the above causes, following suggestions are made : (*a*) Loyalty tests for employees may be carried out, if possible, or else attitude survey may be conducted; (*b*) Since computer is new to our business organisations, new employees may have to be recruited, but an effort should be made to train more efficient of the existing employees in computer use, and (*c*) Free access by all employees to the computer room should be avoided.

Errors of incompetence. Quite often the computer staff may commit errors innocently through incompetence. Such errors are rather in the nature of natural errors and are of the following kinds : (*a*) There is corruption of files due to programme errors. (*b*) Incorrect information may be accumulated due to mispunching, etc. (*c*) Hardware faults can cause incorrect data input; and (*d*) Incorrect software application may result in faulty conclusions.

Remedy of errors of incompetence. These errors can be remedied by taking the counter steps to the errors listed above : (*a*) To avoid corruption of files, many generations of files should be available. (*b*) Rigorous input validation checks should be introduced to avoid mispunching, etc. (*c*) Hardware security facilities should be discussed with the computer supplier. (*d*) Suggestions made should be followed and where changes in layout etc. are to be made, they should be done. (*d*) Software security can be increased by restricting the use of computer, punishment for breaking the code of conduct in the use of computer, and carrying out audit of records so that there is no misuse of files and terminals.

QUESTIONS

1. What is security? What is its importance in the context of modern office? Discuss its principles.

2. You are the office manager of a very large organisation. Your M.D. wants

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you to plan security for the office. Outline the steps that you would take in planning security.

3. "Layout and security are inter-related." Discuss. How will you plan security in a new building or an old building?

4. A security section exists in the office of which you are the executive incharge. What points would you consider in enforcing a security system.

5. Write short notes on:

(*a*) Training and discipline in security.

(*b*) Security Manual.

6. What is the importance of computer security and how can you accomplish it?

7. Discuss the causes of the breach of computer security. How can you remedy situation.

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Chapter 9

DEPARTMENTS OF MODERN OFFICE

DEPARTMENTATION of office is the first step towards putting it into action. The departmentation of the office is to be done on a functional basis, while centralising certain services in the General Office.

In a small organisation, departmentation of the office may be a futile exercise. Departmentation may exist so far as functions are concerned while the small staff working in the office may not be divided over departments. For example, in a small office, the typist may be responsible for maintaining the petty cash, and so on. As the organisation grows, the office is bound to grow in size so as to keep pace with the growth of the business. Now the process of departmentation of the office will start. It is only in a large organisation that the departmentation of the office assumes great importance. Office may consist of a number of departments. The shape, size and number of departments of the office would depend upon the following factors: (*i*) the *size* of the business oprations, (*ii*) the *policy* of the management regarding grouping of activities for the purposes of departmentation and, (*iii*) *other considerations*, *e.g.*, what other similar organisations are doing regarding departmentation.

Office of the large organisation consists of a number of departments which are described in the following paragraphs.

THE GENERAL ADMINISTRATION OFFICE OR THE GENERAL OFFICE

In most manufacturing organisations, it may be taken to be the most important department of the office. In the case of companies, the company secretarial section is grouped along with the general office, although this cannot be the rule. Many functions relating to the organisation are centralised in the general office, *e.g.* typing, duplicating, photocopying, correspondence, choosing office machines, records of executives, etc. The general office may also act as a resource centre responsible for providing handbooks, publicity

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material, display facilities, etc. The general office also acts as a general reserve force to assist activities in other departments which come under pressure at times of peak activity.

Sections of the General Office

The general office is divided into different sections on the basis of functions to be performed. Usually the general office of a large organisation is divided into the following sections:

(*i*) **Typing pool.** Typing pool consists of typists responsible for typing correspondence, preparing statements and doing such other work relating to typing. However, the senior executives have their personal secretaries who are responsible for looking after their correspondence needs.

(*ii*) **Copying and duplicating section.** It is a well-known fact that as an office expands, there is greater need for copies of documents, bulletins and memos, etc. Copying and duplicating services become an important activity of the office. Thus a separate section is organised in the general office to look after the large-scale needs of copying and duplicating. In smaller organisations, copying and duplicating section may be combined with the typing pool.

(*iii*) **Correspondence section.** A separate correspondence section may have to be organised in a large organisation. The main function of the correspondence section is to look into different letters, enquiries, memoranda, etc. and prepare suitable replies. This work of perparing correspondence is performed by the section for the office as well as for other functional departments. This correspondence may be *internal* or inter-departmental, where it concerns the people within the organisation. The correspondence is *external* where it concerns outside people and organisations and the goverment departments. The correspondence section receives incoming mail from different departments and outside sources along with the instructions for dealing with them. The relevant documents, files, papers, etc. are then looked into before drafting suitable replies, enquiries and memoranda, etc. Often in a small organisation the correspondence section may be a part of the typing, copying and duplicating section.

(*iv*) **The filing, indexing and record-keeping section.** This section in usually referred to by its more simple name, namely the filing section or the records section. Centralisation of filing is resorted to in a smaller organisation and this work is performed by the filing section of the general office. This section aims at the systematic preservation of documents, papers and files relating to different departments at one central place.

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The section performs a number of *functions*, which are: (*a*) receipts of papers, documents, etc. for filing; (*b*) classification, indexing and cross-referencing of such papers and documents; and (*c*) issue of files to various departments for reference and their back-receipting. The filing section is an important section of the general office and much of the efficiency of the organisation depends upon an efficient filing section.

(*v*) **Mailing section.** The mailing section deals with the incoming and outgoing mail. The incoming mail is received, its contents recorded or registered, it is sorted and finally distributed among the concerned departments. The outgoing mail is prepared for despatch by folding and inserting into covers or envelopes, stamping of covers, despatch of mail through messenger or post and entering of the necessary details in the Despatch Register.

(*vi*) **Calculations and data processing section.** In a large organisation there may be a separate calculations and data processing section in the general office. Quite often this section may be combined with the budget section. Such a section is responsible for making centralised calculations regarding budgets, financial statements and forecasts, and furnishing of data needed by the management to take managerial decisions.

(*vii*) **Secretarial section or department.** The general office has a separate section for the company secretarial work. In fact, in practice, the company secretary's office is synonymous with the general office and the office manager is responsible for the supervision of routine functions of the office while important functons like data processing, preparation of budgets, etc. may be entrusted to the secretary of the company. The secretarial department looks after the corporate functions of issue of shares, maintenance of register of members, keeping the necessary documents as per the requirements of the Companies Act, filing of returns with the Registrar of Companies. It convenes meetings, prepares agenda and minutes and performs such other functions which have been assigned to it.

ACCOUNTS DEPARTMENT

Accounts department is one of the major departments in any organisation, which is headed by a senior member of the management team. In some large companies, the person heading the accounts department is a member of the Board. In a smaller company, the head of the accounts department may also head the office and the secretarial

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department. The main functions of the accounts department are to account to the following:

(*i*) The individual employees for wages, commission, expenses etc.
(*ii*) The suppliers for goods and services supplied.
(*iii*) The management for the profitability (or otherwise) of the enterprise.
(*iv*) The Government for its share of revenues, *e.g.*, the excise and customs duties and the corporation and income taxes, etc.
(*v*) Outside institutions where it collects funds on their behalf, *e.g.*, collecting funds for the Red Cross Society, etc.

Accounts department, in many cases, is the control department so far as financial planning and budgeting, etc. are concerned. In many organisations, accounts department includes the cash department and cost accounting department. Thus the scope of the activities of the accounts department is very wide.

CASH DEPARTMENT OR CASHIER'S DEPARTMENT

In some organisations, there may be a need for a separate cash department if the number of cash transactions is large. The cash department is entrusted with the work of the receipt of cash, payment of cash, preparation of Petty Cash Book, Cash Book and Bank's Ledger. The cash department must prepare the statements to show the liquidity position and the bank reconcilation statements from time to time.

THE WAGES DEPARTMENT

In a large organisation, a separate wages department is organised. The functions of such a department are to prepare the payrolls of all employees, put the pay into pay packets and envelopes and do other work that goes with the wages. In a small organisation, the wages department is a part of the general office or the accounts department. The number of personnel working in the wages department depends upon the size of the organisation.

THE PERSONNEL OFFICE

The personnel office is another department of office. The importance of the personnel office is obvious—good industrial relations and productivity go together. The personnel office performs a number of functions like the recruitment of staff, their training and development, the description of jobs, and the devising of methods of payment,

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promotion of employees from grade to grade, the provision of welfare facilities, the provision of retirement and pension schemes, the preparation of the contracts of employment, the drawing of redundancy schemes where appropriate, and the dismissal of employees, etc. For all these tasks, a lot of paper work is essential. The personnel office has a large number of papers, records and documents relating to these functions. Personnel office is a strategic office since it links the workers with the management. Its efficiency only adds to the satisfaction of workers. It advises the management on matters concerning various personnel functions.

THE PURCHASE OFFICE

The purchase office is responsible for different kinds of purchases, *e.g.*, the assets, like machines and tools; consumable items, like stationery, etc., and the goods for resale or raw materials for manufacture. In order to make these purchases, it has to perform a number of tasks. It finds out the best sources of supply of purchases, settles terms of purchases, places orders, receives invoices and delivery from suppliers, compares the orders with the invoices and the terms of purchase, prepares purchase journal and ledger, checks and certifies the supplier's bills for payment and performs such other tasks which are relevant to its functions.

The performance of these tasks requires the backing of an efficient office. This is precisely what the purchase office does. It advises the management on different matters concerning purchases.

THE FACTORY OFFICE

In a manufacturing organisation the factory is an important component. The factory office deals with the clerical work regarding various aspects of the functioning of the factory, *e.g.*, the production control, the quality control, the documentation of production, progress-chasing to see that the production maintains the desired speed, the issue and supply of stocks of raw materials and tools, the machine-loading to see that machines are fully employed and the control of stocks. All these things require an efficient backing from the factory office. Records concerning all these aspects of the functioning of the factory are to be maintained, which must be instantly available to the factory manager and other executives for necessary managerial action. The factory office is usually located in the factory and is staffed by persons who have technical knowledge about the different

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processes of production. The factory office prepares, checks and records materials requisition; prepares materials schedule; prepares operations schedules; maintains stock records; maintains job records; prepares and keeps cost accounting records; prepares wage and salary bills; provides data for production planning; and performs other miscellaneous functions relevant to the factory.

THE SALES DEPARTMENT OR THE SALES OFFICE

The sales office or department performs a number of functions, which are summarised as follows: (*i*) It prepares or commissions attractive brochures and publicity material for the firm's products. (*ii*) It obtains and trains the sales-force and makes them knowledgeable about the different products to be sold. (*iii*) It devises a system of documentation and controls to keep the selling expenses at the minimum and informs the top management about it. (*iv*) It stages demonstration of the firm's products at appropriate times and places, and participates in exhibitions, trade fairs and *melas* organised by trade associations and other bodies. (*v*) It explains the complaints of the customers to the production department to improve the quality and performance of the firm's products. (*vi*) It answers the unjust complaints of the customers. (*vii*) It carries out market research. (*viii*) It collects and compiles different types of sales and other data for helping the top management. All these activities of the sales department must be properly backed by the clerical operations. The sales department prepares and revises the list of customers; receives cheque and records orders from the customers; prepares customers' invoices, delivery notes and credit notes; prepares the Sales Ledger and Sales Journal; prepares and submits the bills and statements to customers and takes up the follow-up action; collects overdue bills; prepares records of sales performance of different salesmen—region-wise and product-wise; prepares market research reports; advises the top management about sales policy and related matters; and lays down test standards for the sales team.

THE EXPORT DEPARTMENT

Where an organisation exports on a large-scale, it may be necessary to organise a separate export department in the office. In most smaller firms with small quantities of export, the sales office would look after the export activity of the organisation. The export department is responsible for a number of office functions such as export

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market research studies; preparation of the list of exporters and their constant revision; obtaining and retaining information concerning government regulation of exports; export procedure to be adopted; preparation of export invoices; followingup customers and banks for payment; maintenance of export customers' accounts; maintenance of accounts concerning export assistance and subsides etc., foreign publicity, servicing of customers' complaints, etc.

THE IMPORT DEPARTMENT

Some organisations import on a large-scale. In such organisations, it may be necessary to organise separate import department in the office. Where an organisation imports in small quantities or only occasionally, the purchase office (or department) would look after this activity. The import department is responsible for many office functions such as locating sources of supply in other countries, settling terms of imports, placing orders, getting government clearance and release of exchange, receiving invoices, preparing accounts, checking suppliers' bills, and performing such other functions, which relate to imports.

THE DESPATCH DEPARTMENT

It is not necessary to have a separate despatch department of the office, where the organisation is not very large. In such a case, the activities of despatch department might be the responsibility of the general office and a separate section might be created in the general office to this effect. But it may be desirable to create a separate department for despatch in a large organisation. The *stages in despatch* are: (*i*) Despatch activity starts with the arrival of the documents from the invoice clerk, usually with labels. (*ii*) The next step is the allocation of goods from stock to contract which requires the assembly of goods from different stock bins. (*iii*) Next the packaging of goods must be done in the most appropriate manner. The materials to be used for packaging would depend upon the product to be despatched, the place of despatch, the mode of transport to be used and the weather conditions. (*iv*) Then the marking would be done in the most suitable manner. (*v*) The consignment note or delivery note covering a number of deliveries will be prepared for the driver or the carrier. In the case of export orders, other necessary documents must be prepared and should accompany the goods.

The above procedure of despatch requires preparation of a number

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of documents and the appropriate record is to be maintained for despatch.

TRANSPORT DEPARTMENT

It is a very important department in many firms. The transport department looks after the needs for various types of transport in the organisation. The transport department may operate a number of vehicles owned by it. Where transport of goods is to be arranged in bulk, it may be done by hiring outside contractors. The transport department of the office performs the following *functions*: (*i*) The *transport programme* is drawn up on the basis of the orders to be executed or raw materials, etc. to be transported to the factory. (*ii*) The *allocation of programme* to vehicles or to the transport contractors is done. It would be done by considering factors like the number of vehicles, duties of drivers and terms of contract with the outside contractors. (*iii*) The *destination sheets* are then drawn up stating details regarding vehicle number, driver, driver's mate or helper, contents of load, mileage and destination, etc. (*iv*) *Delivery notes* are then prepared in multiple copies based on the practice of the office. (*v*) The transport department also looks after the *other aspects of control* like the costing of journey, vehicle location, return loads, drivers' hours records and vehicle maintenance records.

ORGANISATION AND METHODS (O AND M) DEPARTMENT[1]

In large forward-looking organisations in the USA, Japan and Europe, an independent Organisation and Methods department may be created with a view to create efficiency in the organisation. The practice of O and M may be applied to any operating department—factory, sales department, etc. In many firms, an O and M department is centralised in the general office and forms a part of the general office. The objectives of O and M are to eliminate waste in all activities, codification of work procedures, improvement in flow of work, improvement of existing work output, improvement in accuracy and improvement of service rendered by office work. All these objectives require a lot of paper work since a greater part of O and M work is paper work.

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[1] O and M have been studied in detail in another Section of the book.

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E.D.P. DEPARTMENT

EDP department is fast becoming a very important part of the office in many organisations even in our country. These organisations are the banks, insurance corporations, airlines, etc. In a large-sized company, EDP department is an important department, whose main aim is to aid information systems and management. The organisation of this department has to be based on the aims, objectives and organisational structure of the company. In a smaller organisation, EDP function may not be organised as a separate department of the office, but may form a part of the general office as already stated.

QUESTIONS

1. How would you affect departmentation in the office? Describe briefly the different departments of the office of a large organisation.
2. You are the office manager of a multi-national company. How would you organise its general office?
3. Write notes on any two of the following: (*a*) The accounts office; (*b*) The factory office; (*c*) The sales office.
4. You have been appointed the Secretary and Administrative Director of a large new company. You are asked by the Board to set up its office. How would you go about your job?

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Chapter 10

OFFICE SUPERVISION

194

SUPERVISION can be defined as the process in which an individual directs and controls the work of others. Supervision is inherent in group effort because it would be difficult to achieve the organisational goals without effective supervision. Every employee in an organisation has the right to know to whom he is responsible and for what Supervisor is the person to whom he is responsible for the work that he performs.

OFFICE SUPERVISOR

Supervision in the office is the task of the supervisor. Littlefield and Peterson describe a supervisor as a person who carries out lower level responsibilities for higher level management and has a direct control over personnel. Terry describes a supervisor as a "*Management member working at an organisational level where personal oversight of tasks assigned to small groups is assumed in order to assure satisfactory performance.*" The supervisor, is therefore, an individual who is at the critical focal point where work is to be got done. He is the one who "supervises" performance of tasks assigned to a group of workers and is "responsible" for their performance. It is he who accounts for the performance of his subordinates to the management.

Types of Office Supervisors

Supervisors are variously called *first-line supervisors*, *second-line supervisors*, and *third-line supervisors* and so on. This classification is based on the degrees of supervision. The first-line-supervisor is one who oversees the workers at the bottom of the organisation directly. The second-line supervisor is one who supervises one or more first line supervisors. Similarly, the third-line supervisor supervises one or more second-line supervisors. Where office function is considered to be less important than other functions, the office manager may be only a second-line or a third-line supervisor. This usually happens in

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a small organisation. The company secretary may be placed similarly, if the company is a small company. In the government departments, section officers, superintendents and assistant superintendents hold supervisory positions and are responsible for overseeing the work of different categories of workers placed under their charge. In many offices, supervisors are called by various other names, for example, senior assistants and so on.

Working Supervisors

A working supervisor can be defined as a supervisor who spends most of his time in "actual production". He is the type who coordinates the work of his team and performs almost identical duties as are performed by members of his group. Besides, he has certain limited supervisory duties. His job can be considered as a stepping stone to higher supervisory and managerial jobs in course of time.

Position of the Office Supervisor

The office supervisor, by whatever name he is called, occupies a very delicate and important position in the organisation structure of the office. He is the key figure in managerial actuating. Almost every plan and policy must pass through him for implementation. It is he who is responsible for the correct interpretation of plans and policies to his subordinates. For them, he is their guiding spirit. It is he who introduces team spirit among the subordinates. Terry summarises his position in these words: "An organisation unit is what it is largely because of the supervisor's influence." In practice, most of the problems are reduced to simple tasks when the supervisor is competent and gets full cooperation from his subordinates. He is the one who creates the right type of climate to achieve the desired level of office production. The supervisor is responsible for getting the work done within a reasonable time and at a reasonable cost. In other words, he is the ultimate regulator of what is accomplished.

His position is very delicate and strategic since he is the point of contact between management members and non-management members of the organisation. Many employees take him to be a representative of the management, even if he is the first-line supervisor. Drucker[1] talks about this aspect in the following words:

"The essence of the first-line supervisor's job in the plant or office

[1]Drucker, Peter F., *Management—Tasks, Responsibilities, Practices*, Indian Edition, 1975, Allied Publishers Pvt. Ltd.

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is the management of people who report to him. Upward or sideways relations are secondary on that level. Yet common usage does not consider the first-line supervisor a manager. We speak of the supervisor as a "member of management", implying that he should be a manager but really is not or only marginally so. The reason is, of course, that the first-line supervisor, whether in the factory or in the office, is not commonly expected to take much responsibility for his contribution and results. He is expected to deliver according to objectives set for him by others . . . . This makes the supervisor's job ambiguous and difficult."

In spite of his above position as stated by Drucker, we are reluctant to call him a manager even if he performs more important managerial tasks than many "members of management" at much higher levels. Supervisor thus must be recognised as a member of the managerial team. He should be given his due in the office (or the factory). He must be given the status of a "manager".

Saving the Supervisor

His position has been downgraded in the present set-up. To quote Drucker[1] again, "For half a century or more the first-line supervisor, especially in manufacturing and clerical work, has seen his role shrinking in status, in importance, and in esteem. Where a supervisor was 'management' to the employee only half a century ago, he has now, by and large, become a buffer between management, union and workers. And like all buffers, his main function is to take the blows." In the modern organisational set-ups, supervisor is increasingly becoming the "enemy". He is separated from the men he supervises by an ever-higher wall of hostility, suspicion and resentment. But, on the other hand, he is separated from management by his lack of managerial knowledge. "His subordinates consider him their spokesman and expect him to protect them and their knowledge area against managerial demands and managerial ignorance. Management, on the other hand, expects him to integrate the knowledge and expertise of the people in his area with the mission, purpose and objectives of the institution. Increasingly he finds himself disavowed by both, by his subordinates because he is no longer truly a scientist or an expert but has "sold out" to management, and by management because he is parochial, departmentalised and one-sided."

In Sweden, the USA and many countries of Europe there has

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[1]Drucker, *op. cit.*, pp. 279-80.

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been a movement to rehabilitate the supervisor. It has been realised that the supervisors are the ligaments, the tendons and sinews of an organisation. They provide the force of movement to the organisation. It is recognised that the supervisor's job is to be in the middle. "Hence he must have responsibility, function, and respect in both relationships, upward to management and downward to the work group."

In IBM, for example, supervisor's role has been completely re-defined. He is a *resource* of the worker and the work group. He is the organised source of knowledge, of information, of direction, of arbitration and a channel for contact and information flow to and from the various experts, for the worker and the work group. Over-emphasis on rigid discipline must go and it is its correctional aspect that can be adopted in rare instances. The proper role of the supervisor is not the supervision as understood in the traditional sense—a tyrant and a hard taskmaster. It is knowledge, information, placing, training, teaching, standard-setting and guiding. Once this has been realised, the goal of effective supervision is achieved.

Functions of the Supervisor

On the basis of the above discussion, we consider the supervisor a member of "the management." It is on this basis that we now classify his functions. They can be broadly classified as those relating to planning, controlling, organising and actuating. Following are the different functions of the supervisor under different headings of management tasks:

Function of planning. The supervisor performs the following functions of planning:

1. He participates in the formulation of the establishment of *objectives* for his work group or unit.
2. He attempts to understand and know the *work* to be performed by him and his work group.
3. He attempts to understand the company *policies* and interprets them to his work group.
4. He keeps up with *new developments.*
5. He *introduces* (or suggests to the higher management) *improvements* in current methods of work being followed.

Function of controlling. The supervisor performs the following functions of controlling:

1. He follows stated *practices and procedures.*
2. He makes use of *standards* established for the work.
3. He *evaluates* work output in terms of cost.

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4. He *checks* accuracy and quantity of work produced.
5. He minimises *peak work loads* to achieve optimum utilisation of work group.

Function of organising. The supervisor performs the following functions of organising:

1. He *delegates* work to others.
2. He *allocates* the work among members of his work group.
3. He *places similar work in the same work sub-group* or group.
4. He *establishes proper authority relationship* among members of a work group.
5. He keeps *employee-work relationship* up-to-date.

Function of actuating. The supervisor performs the following functions relating to managerial actuating:

1. He informs employees of *changes.*
2. He *evaluates employees.*
3. He enforces *discipline.*
4. He helps to *develop understudies.*
5. He secures *teamwork and harmony* among persons in his group.
6. He *increases the value of employees* in his group.

In brief, his functions are of great importance in more than one respect. He has to display perfect leadership to carry his work group or unit with him. His function is that of the link between the higher management and his group.

Duties and Responsibilities of the Supervisor

The office manager directs all the office work in the small office. He himself is the first-line supervisor. But as office expands, the office is departmentalised and so many layers of authority get established. Where an organisation is large right from the time of its formation, departmentation becomes the precondition of office. Considering the functions stated earlier, the duties and responsibilities are in comformity with the functions that the supervisor performs. The responsibility of the supervisor can be classified as *upward* responsibilities to higher management, *downward* responsibilities to subordinates, *parallel* responsibilities to supervisors of equal rank, responsibilities in relation to *office work* and responsibilities for self-development.

These various duties and responsibilities of the supervisor are stated in the following paragraphs.

Responsibilities of the supervisor to others in the business organisation. (*a*) ***Upward responsibilities of the supervisor to higher management.*** These responsibilities are:

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1. To ascertain and carry out what management wants done.
2. To keep his superiors informed of what his work group is doing and to pass on ideas and new knowledge for work improvement.
3. To accept full responsibility for the work in his work group without, what can be called, "passing the buck".
4. To refer matters requiring superiors' attention promptly; and not to bother superiors without reason.
5. To take interest in and convey the needs of his subordinates to the higher management and *vice versa.*
6. To maintain contacts at executive level with tact, diplomacy and great dignity.

(*b*) *Downward responsibilities of the supervisor to his work group.*

1. To help in the selection of new employees.
2. To assist new workers to get started quickly and correctly.
3. To train members of his work group to assume greater responsibilities.
4. To aid every employee to know what to do, how to do it and check the results continuously.
5. To evaluate members of the work group periodically and recommend promotions, salary adjustments, transfers and dismissals.
6. To commend and encourage his subordinates and give due credit for work well done.
7. To develop harmony, cooperation and team work in his group.
8. To develop understudies.
9. To delegate responsibility adequately and properly.
10. To build and sustain employee morale and to handle grievances promptly and fairly.
11. To develop punctuality, maintain discipline and control absenteeism.
12. To take a personal interest in the subordinates without partiality.
13. To use supervisory characteristics such as courtesy, tact and leadership and to consider subordinates as human beings and individual centres of emotion and action.

(*c*) *Parallel responsibilities of the supervisor to supervisors of equal rank.*

1. To help coordinate the work of his department with that of others for the good of the organisation.
2. To cooperate with his associates in the same manner that he expects his subordinates to cooperate with each other.
3. To accept full responsibility for work in his department.
4. To try to understand the problems of colleagues.
5. To permit promotion of good workers and allow interchange of

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workers.

6. To function effectively in the Supervisors' Committee, if any.

Responsibilities of the supervisor in relation to office work. 1. To plan the systems and routines for jobs of his work group.

2. To distribute the work fairly among his subordinates.

3. To coordinate the work of different units, if necessary.

4. To see that the work is done on time and correctly and efficiently.

5. To maintain the quality and quantity of work by setting work standards.

6. To anticipate bottlenecks and peak workloads.

7. To study, develop and use new methods, machines and equipment and office systems to reduce costs.

8. To train and develop a number of understudies and substitutes to meet the situations like absences, overloads and the flow of work.

Responsibilities of the supervisor for self-development. 1. To continuously analyse and improve personality traits like personal appearance, punctuality, courtesy, confidence of subordinates and others, self-control, proper analytical ability, initiative, leadership and fair play.

2. To master fully all the work in his unit/department and try to reduce costs.

3. To study the organisation and personnel of the entire firm to develop maximum departmental cooperation and train understudies for his job.

4. To study the requirements for the next supervisory job in the line of promotion.

5. To seek membership of professional organisations and participate actively in their deliberations, etc.

6. To study up-to-date magazines, books and bulletins, relevant literature that will help him in improving the work in his present and future positions.

7. To continue, where possible and necessary, his formal education in those areas that will help him in his day-to-day work.

Knowledge and Skill of the Supervisor

To perform his functions effectively and shoulder his responsibilities, the supervisor must have certain knowledge and requisite skill. The type and intensity of the knowledge needed by the supervisor will vary from office to office, but the ability to perform certain activities skilfully is fairly constant regardless of the office and the type of work performed by a supervisor.

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Knowledge needs. Following is the summary of the basic knowledge needs of the supervisor:

1. *Technical knowledge.* Technical knowledge relates to the knowledge of materials, office forms, equipment, systems, procedures and the manner in which results are used. Most of this knowledge is acquired by the supervisor when he is working in non-supervisory capacity. The supervisor should have sufficient knowedge about the detail of work that is done. This is needed to provide the leadership to the subordinates performing the tasks and to plan and control their work so that orderly and reasonable rates of performance are attained.

2. *Knowledge of responsibilities.* The knowledge of responsibilities includes understanding the rules, regulations and policies of the organisation, the extent of the authority and responsibility of the supervisor; and the matters on which he can take final decisions. It is essential for the supervisor to acquaint himself with the basic information about organisation, management, collective bargaining, communication, budgeting and other areas of direct or indirect concern in the supervisory job that he performs.

Skill needs. The essential skill needs of the supervisor are as follows:

1. *Skill in teaching.* The job of the supervisor entails the giving of specific or broad instructions to his subordinates. It means that he must possess the requisite skill to pass on the knowledge to others and develop them. This needs skill in teaching and is the principal means to make supervision more effective. The subordinates are more satisfied, more industrious and take greater interest in their work if they are clearly informed about the work wanted from them and the methods they would use. Therefore, the supervisor should have adequate skill in teaching so that a well-trained work force is available in the organisation.

2. *Skill in methods improvement.* All progressive managers constantly aim at better utilization of manpower, materials and machines. Initially work methods are inherited, hastily drawn and put together, and copied from similar operations. Methods of work can be improved constantly to achieve this aim. Methods improvement is achieved by using skill of analysis and ingenuity.

3. *Skill in human relations.* This is an important part of the supervisor's functioning which sometimes suffers due to pressure of working with people. Getting along with subsordinates smoothly is very vital to the supervisor. All this calls for a great skill because the basic task of a supervisor is to get things done.

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Some Important Aspects of Functioning of the Supervisor

There are certain important aspects of the functioning of the supervisor, more important of these are stated below:

Supervisor and decision making. Decision making is a very important part of the functioning of a supervisor. Proper decisions help him to gain the confidence of his men and also to avoid hindrances to work. A supervisor can make the right decisions only if he possesses sound judgment. Alfred P. Sloan[1] gives the following steps as essential in formulating sound judgment in the light of experience and reason:

"1. Get the facts.

2. Evaluate or weigh the facts. (Organise them so that they are understandable and usable.)

3. Decide.

4. Let the decision be final, unless later evidence demands a revision."

It is essential for every supervisor to learn to apply automatically the steps listed above to each problem as it arises in his daily work.

The supervisor and the human relations. Human relations can perhaps be described as the most important aspect of supervision. The best technical knowledge on the part of the supervisor would produce no positive results unless the supervisor is good at human relations work. Terry sums up this problem in these words: "Material facts, basic information, and technical knowledge are necessary, but the daily challenge to most supervisors lies not in these areas, but in stimulating his group members to perform the maximum quantity and quality of work and making it possible for them to achieve contentment and satisfaction for these work efforts".

In other words, the supervisor must use the *human approach* in his work of supervision. "The ability to treat the employee as a human being, to gain mutual respect and understanding, to have his trust, to win his cooperation without any command or coercion are among the essential qualities that characterise the truly successful supervisor." But it does not mean that he has to be too friendly and intimate and lose his respect and confidence among his subordinates. He has to have a balance.

In order to function effectively on the human relations front, he should be impartial, open-minded and fair in dealing with the everyday problems of his work group. If he is impartial and fair, his decision will not invoke resentment for long even in the minds of those

[1]Quoted by Spriegel, Schulz, Spriegel, Elements of Supervision (2nd Edition), Wiley International Edition.

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against whom the decisions go. He must be easily approachable to his workers and listen to their problems with care and sympathy. Besides, the supervisor must stick to his promises.

Following is the summary of human relations practices for supervisors in the office:

1. *Positive attitude.* Judge every member of the work group by his good qualities. Goals are achieved by positive attitudes and not by emphasizing over lack of skill and ability.

2. *Constructive personal contact.* The supervisor should make every personal contact constructive and helpful. The effort should be to help each member of the group to attain the intimate of his potential.

3. *Group participation in plans.* Human relations are best when every worker participates in planning. Plans should satisfy the group and eliminate objections from the workers in a way that set objectives are attained easily and the interests of workers are well-protected.

4. *Teamwork.* Teamwork and unity must be achieved by eliminating opposition of interests among the members of the group. The common motives must be found out for this purpose.

5. *Clear instructions.* Clear, precise and complete instructions must be given by the supervisor to his subordinates. He should leave nothing to chance. He should communicate effectively with his group on work to be done, and how it is to be done.

Supervisor and delegating. The office supervisor must delegate properly. Delegating is necessary from his point of view as well as those of workers. By delegating properly, he improves the confidence of workers and develops their initiative and capability. By delegating he inspires his workers to assume new responsibilities and innovate. Thus proper delegation benefits the organisation greatly in more than one way. Efficiency increases and replacements are readily available in case of need.

Proper delegation benefits the supervisor as well. Delegation leaves him free to think, innovate, and also improve himself so that in course of time he is free to take up bigger responsibilities. Lack of delegation is thus harmful even from the point of view of the supervisor.

Supervisor and discipline. The meaning of the word discipline has been greatly misunderstood by most people. It has been equated with reprimanding or punishing. Discipline should mean *teaching* and *correcting*. Discipline cannot be punitive, it must be preventive. The supervisor should take discipline as a means to assist, guide and train his workers to be devoted workers. Discipline for the worker should mean self-discipline, a means to subjugate his own personal desires to contribute towards the goals of the enterprise. The rules, policies, etc.

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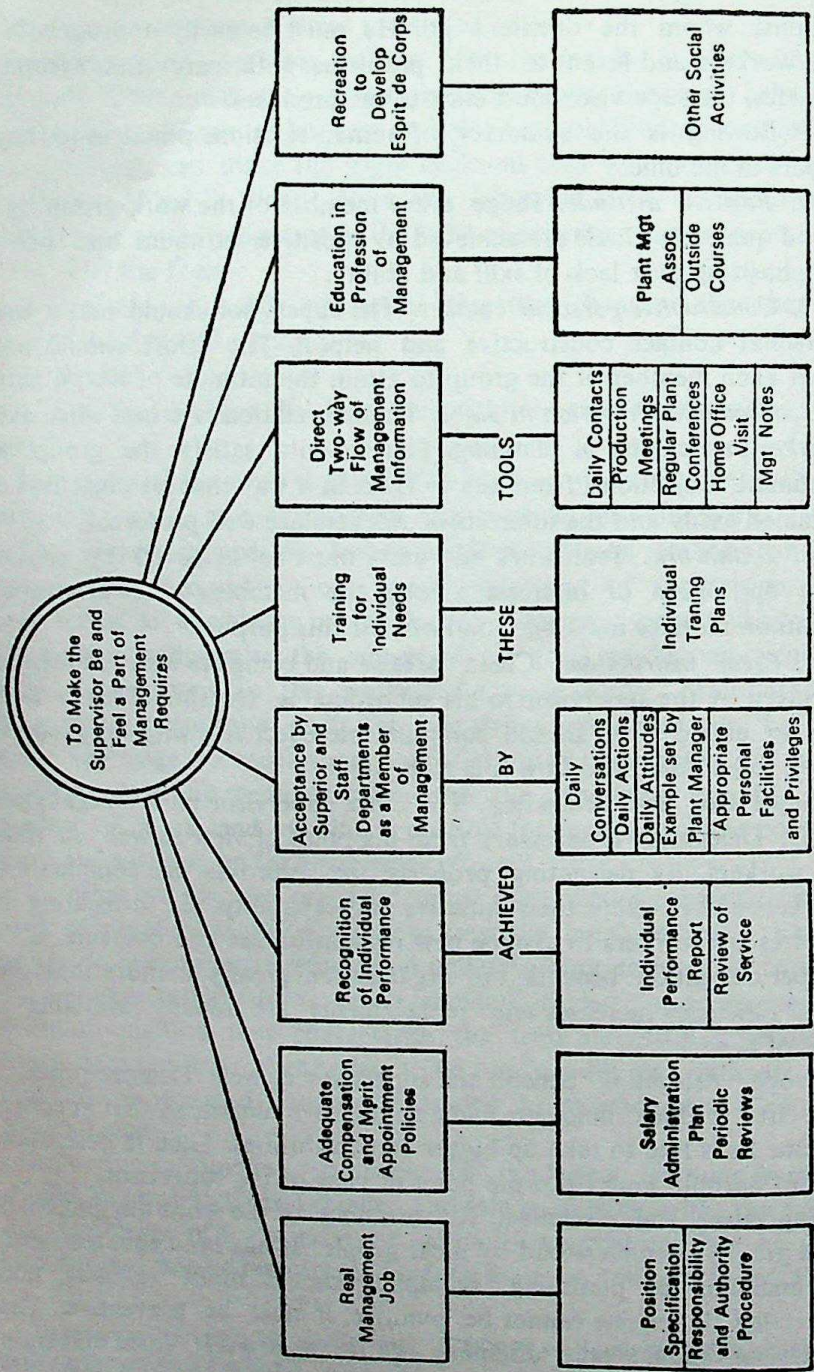

FIG. 10.1. The Supervisor in Management.

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of the firm towards workers should be such which are not resisted by workers. They should not invade the privacy of workers so long as their personal behaviour does not injure the interests of the organisation. They should also be reviewed from time to time.

If the need to reprimand a worker arises, he should be taken aside and talked to privately and not in the presence of his co-workers. Although, in today's organisations, discipline connot be punitive, yet any programme of discipline must be tied in with penalties which are enforced impartially and informally.

Supervisor and morale. Morale can be described as the mental state that causes employees to perform their work with a feeling of satisfaction and enjoyment. This feeling persists in the minds of the employees at all times, during working hours or after working hours. The supervisor promotes morale when he helps the workers to satisfy their desires, interests and feelings. Morale contributes to a satisfied work group with greater achievement in terms of goal attainment of the firm. The morale is something which had to be promoted by taking into considerations, four basic wants of human beings, namely, security, recognition,importance and expression.

Elements of Securing Effective Supervision

Following are the elements that should be considered for achieving effective supervision:

1. Impartiality. No favouritism should be shown and all workers must be treated similarly. The success of the supervisor depends upon objectivity. His personal likes and dislikes should not affect his actions.

2. Practise participative management. Every member of the work group is given the right to make suggesstions and discuss work methods. After all the supervisor cannot have a monopoly of all the new and better ideas.

3. Prompt enforcement of all rules and regulations. Rules and regulations must be enforced promptly and any delay will reflect indecision and inability to cope with the situation.

4. Simple instructions. The supervisor should issue clear and simple instructions and should show great patience where asked to repeat or dealing with new hands, who are not familiar with the work.

5. Insist on proper work output. Satisfactory work outputs are the chief responsibility of the supervisor and, therefore, he should stress upon the need for every employee to perform his best.

6. Watch waste of materials and time. He should guard against waste of materials and time.

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7. Securing opinions of employees regarding supervision. It is necessary to do so to avoid trouble in due course. This can be done through spot interviews, attitude surveys, casual conversations and discussion groups; and he should find out what is bothering his subordinates.

8. Inform the employees about policies, etc. The supervisor should interpret the policies, etc. of the organisation to the workers.

9. Inform higher management of the supervisory action. He should inform the higher management what supervisory action is taking place and why, since supervisory action requires the backing of higher management.

10. Development of capable assistants. Every organisation needs development of capable persons to take over supervisory jobs in course of time. The supervisor should develop understudies. Since many a time failure to do so may jeopardise the chances of the promotion of the supervisor himself.

Supervisor in Action

We now consider the office supervisor in action—how he functions in practice in the various types of offices, *i.e.*, government offices, semi-government offices and private enterprise offices in our country. Following are the important aspects of his functioning:

1. Preparation of plans, systems, procedures and manuals. The management prepares plans for his work group in consultation with him. Similarly the systems and procedures are prepared on the basis of his suggestions. He is also associated with the preparation of office manuals.

2. Issuing instructions. Since the supervisor is charged with the responsibility of getting the work done and implementing the policies of the organisation, he issues instructions for the purpose. In issuing instructions, he has to take into account the systems and procedures evolved for the work methods. Such instructions, to be effective, should have the following features:

(*i*) Instructions must be *reasonable* taking into account the capacity and competence of the individuals in the work group. Impossible task and targets should not be assigned to individuals because such an action generates fear, non-accomplishment of work and many other personal problems.

(*ii*) Instructions must be *simple and clear*. Clarity of instructions means that they are communicated in the way in which the management desires and the group understands them properly. It is only then the tasks assigned can be carried out properly.

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(*iii*) Instructions to be effective must *be complete*. By this we mean that every aspect of an operation is taken into account and instructions are issued for each of these aspects.

Oral and written instructions and use of office manuals. Instructions can be oral or in writing. Written instructions can be contained in office manuals or they may be prepared by the management for large individual jobs.

Oral instructions. Oral instructions have their own merits. they are quick, flexible, and are useful where the subordinates lack sufficient education to clearly understand the written instructions. Oral instructions have their demerits too. They can be ambiguous, long and verbose, lacking in precision and thought and may reflect only the judgment and discretion of the supervisor. Thus they leave many facts unexplained. Besides, there are no means of checking the instructions where the tasks are not accomplished

Written instructions are also issued. Written instructions take *two* forms: *Firstly*, they are framed for specific tasks on the basis of the demands of each task. *Secondly*, there are the office manuals explaining the routines of work, and the instructions to be followed in completing the work.

Written instructions have a number of *merits* over the oral instructions: (*i*) They are *definite* and leave nothing to chance. The supervisor has specific guidelines which help him greatly in being precise and think clearly, (*ii*) The *subordinates* receiving them are greatly helped by the definiteness of instructions and they get sufficient time to plan their work and efforts, (*iii*) Instructions are *uniform*. Thus they are impartial and create little tensions in the group, (*iv*) Since written instructions are in the nature of a *permanent record*, they can be referred back by the supervisor as well as the employees whenever the need arises. As a permanent record, they are most useful to trainees and new entrants in the unit.

Written instructions have their *demerits* as well. They are summarised as follows: (*i*) Written instructions are *costly to prepare*. Preparation of office manuals involves expenditure and costly overheads like the precious time of a number of managers and non-managers who are involved in their preparation. Where office manuals do not exist, detailed written instructions may take away a great amount of time of the supervisor and he may not, therefore, find adequate time to perform his other tasks. (*ii*) Written instructions or *manuals may be inflexible* since they have been designed to meet the average work demand. (*iii*) Office *manuals become outdated* fairly soon and thus they must be revised often to keep pace with the changes taking

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place everywhere in the organisation. Where they are not revised promptly, the work would suffer. This is so because the average worker in the office looks to office manuals as the *Gita*. (*iv*) Then there is the human limitation that an individual *cannot remember a larger quantity of written word.*

When to use written instructions? Considering the various aspects of oral and written instructions, written instructions should be used in the following situations:

(*i*) Uniform instructions are to be given to many people at the same time throughout the organisation or a large work group.

(*ii*) Work methods are complex and detailed instructions are needed. Under such circumstances, oral instructions cannot be remembered and thus written instructions must be issued.

(*iii*) Where there are special tasks to be performed, written instructions remove misunderstanding and give a definite direction to work.

(*iv*) Written instructions are best suited where they are to be followed for a long time, *e.g.*, the rules of D.A., T.A., etc.

However, the written instructions can never be complete and are unable to meet specific work situations. In these circumstances, as Newman[1] suggests, it would be best to provide main outline of instructions in written form, while their interpretation is left for oral instructions based on the work demands.

3. Follow-up of instructions. Follow-up of instructions is the next phase in the working of the supervisor. In most good organisations, where scientific systems and procedures have been instituted and the consequences, both personal as well as organisational, of not working according to instructions are spelt out properly to the staff, the need for follow-up is minimum. Follow-up of instructions implies that it is the job of the supervisor to see that the work is done on time and the right type of quality of work is maintained. The supervisor should maintain proper record in a *tickler* file about the work on which report or reply is expected. The date of assignment, the work assigned and the expected date of reply, etc. are entered into this file. If the reply or report has not been received back on time, the particular individual assigned with the task is reminded. Just one reminder often produces the desired results and it is likely that the defaulter may not default again. Few facts must be considered before issuing follow-up instructions, which are: (*i*) The supervisor should ignore irrelevant facts and see that the performance of the subordinate in

[1]Newman, W.H., *op. cit.*

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general is satisfactory. (*ii*) If certain instructions have been withdrawn by the higher management, he should withdraw them immediately and thus no follow-up is necessary. (*iii*) Where the cause of delay lies somewhere else and the worker is not responsible, and this is a fact within the knowledge of the supervisor, no follow-up instructions should be issued. In fact, the supervisor should try to remove obstacles and the cause of delay so that the work is performed as per the instructions issued.

4. Duty list or work distribution charts. Some of the office operations are of a repetitive nature. Therefore, it is quite likely that recurring duties are assigned to the employees. Where it is so, it would be ideal to prepare a Duty List or Work Distribution Chart. This Chart is prepared through a careful analysis of the time taken to complete different jobs in the work group.

Merits. The preparation of the List or Chart offers a number of merits, more important of which are: (*i*) *Prompt distribution of work* amongst subordinates is possible. (*ii*) *Responsibility for a given task is fixed.* This may lead to more careful and prompt completion of work. The subordinate knows his task, its details, etc. well and applies his mind properly.

Demerits. However, such Charts have their own demerits, which are summarised below: (*i*) The *work may get disrupted* if some employee in the group absents himself. The supervisor may, however, allot the work to some other worker but the substitute may find the task new (and may complain even) and the work efficiency of the group declines, especially if the absentee worker performs an important part in the process of work. (*ii*) *Uneven flow of work* may be the direct result of a Duty Chart. It is not possible to divide the work equally among all subordinates with precision. This means that work would accumulate at some desks. The superviser may have to intervene and re-distribute the work to ensure an even and smooth flow of work and also to ensure equality in work distribution. (*iii*) The Duty List *works against the slow* worker who may accumulate arrears at the end of each day. These arrears may go on multiplying unless some remedial action is taken by the supervisor. But it does not mean that the efficient workers must be penalised for finishing the work before time or on time. It would be better to evolve a permanent solution of the problem of slow worker through other means like improved methods of work, more intensive teaching and instruction, etc. (*iv*) The Chart suffers from the inherent drawback that *it takes care of duties of recurring nature.* Thus contingencies, which are many in business, may be lost sight of while drawing the List. This

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should not happen. There is a need to provide for work of non-recurring nature in the Chart.

5. Work preparation and issue of circulars, notices and memos. The supervisor is often made responsible for the preparation of circulars, notices and memoranda and their issue to persons in the work group or in the whole of the organisation. Circulars may have to be issued in relation to a number of matters like appointments, transfers, changes in work arrangements, changes in rules regarding employee remunerating, management policies and the changes therein or any other matter specifically assigned to a supervisor. The supervisor may also be responsible for the issue of a number of notices on subjects like meetings, holidays, lockouts, etc. Circulars and notices are to be issued in accordance with the office procedure laid down regarding them. Where such circulars or notices are issued under the direction of a superior officer, the supervisor should put the words *By Order* above the officer's designation.

Office memos (brief for memoranda) are a common form of conveying orders and information to an individual employee. They are without the customary salutation and written in the third person. They are most often used in issuing warnings to employees, replying to petitions from individual employees, replying to application of appointment, etc.

6. Participation in grievance procedure. In practice the supervisor participates in the grievance procedure, although his role has been considered an insignificant one in our country. Jucius[1] defines a grievance "as a complaint expressed in writing (or orally) on a company-related matter."

A grievance can be best settled at the *first-line* supervisor's level. Any complaint settled at this level has a number of advantages, for example, the grievance does not assume more serious proportion and promptness reduces tension in the work group. In brief, peace and a spirit of cooperation prevails in the unit. As soon as the supervisor receives a complaint, he should try to resolve it. He is a key figure who can do much to reduce the number of grievances that get past him to higher steps in the machinery of grievance settlement. The supervisor should, however, be properly trained for the purpose of handling grievances. Besides, it would be essential for the management to give the supervisor the first opportunity to settle grievance within the rules, procedures and policies of the organisation. Jucius explains

[1]Jucius, Michael J. *Personnel Management*, 7th Edition, Richard D. Irwin, Inc. 1972; p. 497.

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this process in these words. And it is good practice to require employees to present their grievances to their immediate supervisor, even though the final disposition must await higher authority. Otherwise, supervisors are in danger of losing any importance in the organisation and the respect of their subordinates."[1]

Evaluating Supervisory Performance

It is necessary to evaluate supervisory performance for the following reasons:

1. **Promotion.** It is a sound policy to promote supervisors to higher managerial jobs from within. A careful evaluation of each supervisor's capacity to work and provide leadership would help the management in this task, especially, if the promotions are based on performance.

2. **Placement.** Supervisors give out their best if they are assigned tasks which suit their temperament and capacity. This can be best achieved if supervisory performance is evaluated.

3. **Training.** Evaluation of supervisory performance helps to find out the areas in which supervisors need more intensive training.

Supervisory Progress and Performance Review

A review of supervisory progress and performance be made, say, once in one year. For a new supervisor, this review should be undertaken at the end of the probationary period, if it is less than a year. In order to have this review, the following form can be used:

Supervisory Progress and Performance Review

Name_____ Date_____

Department_____ Job Title _____

Date Prior Report _____ Tentative Date Next Review _____

Code

Progress Review (based on rater's own knowledge).

S—Absence of normal growth; must improve to hold own on job.
N—Normal growth and progress on job through experience.
G—Good progress; better than average through special efforts.

Performance Review (based on job standards, if any; and each quality should be rated independently).

O Outstanding; falls in top 10%* in any large representative group.

(Contd.)

[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 507.

*This figure can be varied to suit organisational needs.

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A+ Adequate plus; above average
A Adequate; average performance
A− Adequate minus
I Inadequate; must improve to hold job; failing in this category
Mark × in appropriate column for Progress and Performance

Progress			*Performance*			
S	*N*	*G*	*O*	*A+*	*A*	*A−*	*I*

Coordinate, Plan

O Exceptional planner, long and short range company concepts
A+ Lays out work to match own and other groups
A Able to layout and coordinate work in own department
A− Takes short range view, gets flustered easily
I Inadequate planner, no sense of organisational relationship

Control

O Exercises exceptional control with his responsibilities
A+ Rarely lets matters get out of hand, seldom needs to impress with authority
A Requires normal follow-up to accomplish results within area of responsibility
A− Plans not always carried out, needs substantial supervision
I Control inadequate, matters usually out of hand

Delegation

O Exceptional skill in knowing what and how to delegate, and doing it
A+ Usually delegates properly and effectively.
A Occasionally does work which should be delegated
A− Frequently does work which should be delegated
I Incapable of delegating authority and responsibility

Development of Others

O Excellent teacher, fully understands needs for improving subordinates
A+ Does good job training subordinates
A Does adequate job training, scope may be limited
A− Occasionally lacks patience, limited concept of value of development
I Makes little effort to improve subordinates, lacks training techniques

(Contd.)

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Communication

O Exceptionally capable and effective in communication
A+ Usually does good job in communication, good listener
A Communicates adequately (much of time), usually listens patiently
A− Frequently fails to communicate, tends to listen impatiently
I Unwilling or unable to communicate

Additional Comments, explanations, suggestions to justify ratings to aid supervisor in understanding how he stands at this time.

I have been shown this review. (I do not necessarily indicate agreement with it by signing)

I have discussed/counselled with Supervisor/Executive in accordance with this view and have suggested ways to improve.

Supervisor/Executive

Manager/Deptt. Manager

FIG. 10.2

The above form can be further enlarged by including in it such factors as quality of work, judgment, personality, job knowledge, initiative, cooperation, dependability and learnability, etc. of supervisors.

WOMEN AS SUPERVISORS

The last decade has seen a large influx of women in the offices of our country. With the general increase in the number of office workers, more supervisors at different levels are needed. The problem with regard to the women in the offices are stated as follows:

1. Women are poorly represented in supervisory and managerial cadres.
2. Men and older women in offices are used to be 'supervised' by men. This is a matter of habit. Any break in this well-set norm brings out a kind of hostility on their part. They even tolerate incompetent male supervisors.

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3. In the case of many women, they are afraid to shoulder responsibilities of a higher order in the office and are satisfied with doing repetitive clerical jobs. They are more concerned with supplementing the family income.

Women can make as good supervisors as men are. The social prejudices and the lack of understanding on the part of the employers to give a fair chance to women must be put right. They can make good supervisors and manager. They can plan, organise, supervise and control as effectively as men can. But to assume responsibility and carry out supervisory and managerial tasks, they must be properly trained. They have been found to be diligent and conscientious and can be an asset in supervisory roles. In is the duty of the office manager to give due encouragement to the abler of the women employees to train for supervisory jobs.

SUPERVISORS' COMMITTEE

In the West, the idea that supervisors should have a committee has become popular. Such a committee is the forum at which the supervisors discuss among themselves matters of general interest. This committee is in addition to their representatives serving on the main committees set up by management.

The Objectives of Supervisors' Committee

The objectives of such a committee are: (*i*) to provide a *channel of communication* between supervision and management; (*ii*) to provide an *opportunity for consultation* among the supervisors themselves, recognising the extent to which they are isolated in their own jobs; (*iii*) to *bring the supervisors more closely into touch with higher management*, so that they can discuss common problems, suggest improvements, and advise on matters likely to affect company policies or personnel relations, etc.

Advantages of Supervisors' Committee

This committee offers many advantages, more important of which are: (*i*) *A discussion of their own problems by the supervisors* at their level helps them to make the management aware of their work problems. Thus the management can take the necessary remedial steps. (*ii*) The *advice potential* of supervisors to improve work methods, industrial relations, etc. is great, which the committee taps. (*iii*) As Brech[1] points out the advantage of bringing matters like costing,

[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 521.

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overheads, etc. to such a committee for discussion. To have the supervisor "'in the know' on what the company wants done is, of course, as important as telling the driver of the taxi where you want to go."

QUESTIONS

1. What is supervision? Explain the different types of office supervisors.
2. "Supervisor is the man in the middle." Discuss this statement by bringing out clearly the numerous functions that the office supervisor performs.
3. You are the office manager of a medium-sized company. What duties and responsibilities would you assign to your supervisors? What skill needs and knowledge would you seek in them?
4. What is the role of the office supervisor vis-a-vis human relations? Describe the human relations practices for him.
5. Do you feel that the supervisors should be involved in decision-making process in the office? If so, how can he involve himself in decision-making?
6. As the office manager, what type of role would you assign to the supervisor via-a-vis delegation, discipline and morale.
7. What is the supervisors' committee? Explain the objectives and advantages of such a committee.
8. You are the Dierctor administration. The Board of Directors has asked you to evaluate and rate supervisory performance with a view to promote the more deserving amongst them. Complete the process.
9. Write a critical note on women as supervisors.

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Chapter 11

RECORDS MANAGEMENT—I

MEANING

MODERN community depends much upon records. The very existence of modern business, modern government and other social institutions depends upon records. In a modern business contracts, letters, invoices, cheques, vouchers, statistics, price lists, catalogues, cost analysis statements, personnel reports and tax records are to be preserved and it is possible to do so only if there is proper records management. In the words of Littlefield and Peterson records management can be described as the management control of records. Littlefield and others[1] define records management in these words: "Records management, broadly defined, includes forms, reports, reproduction of written material, filing, records retention, microfilming and related services." *Records management in its broadest sense concerns itself with the records' creation, distribution, maintenance, retention, preservation, retrieval and disposal.*

Purposes of Records Management[2]

There are four major purposes of records. They are:

1. To keep an orderly account of progress. By writing and preserving various papers, documents, memorandums of different types of transactions (financial as well as non-financial) the progress of organisation is recorded. This can be described as the historical function of records.

2. To prepare statement of true conditions. The true condition of a business can be known through up-to-date records. This is necessary to make the necessary changes in business planning and strategies.

3. To make comparisons. Records help make comparisons of the following types: (*i*) comparisons between one period of time and

[1]Littlefield and Others, *op. cit.*

[2]Leffingwell and Robinson, *Text Book of Office Management*, Indian Edition, Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing Co. Ltd., New Delhi.

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another; (*ii*) comparisons between different product lines; and (*iii*) comparisons with firms operating in the same line of business. Such comparisons can be described as the *analytical function of records* which has become very important in today's business.

4. To detect errors and wastes. Errors and wastes can be known only with the help of proper records management. Records management is a *control function* which helps evolve techniques to eliminate errors and wastes.

Principles of Records Management

Records management, to be successful, must be based on sound principles. These principles are summarised below:

1. Principle of purpose. The records are to be kept with some purpose in view. It is an unsound argument that recording of all types of facts may prove useful for the organisation one day. If some records have no purpose,[1] they should never be preserved.

2. Principle of verification. The facts recorded must be capable of verification in case of need. For example, if records cannot be verified, they may not serve as good evidence in the court.

3. Principle of classification. Records must be properly classified for use because unclassified facts are a mass of confusion. Classfication of facts helps in proper analysis of a business condition.

4. Principle of availability. Records must be available when needed. It is not necessary that all records should be instantly available. Records, however, should be available in the shortest possible time. The purpose of the record should determine the character and degree of its availability. For example, if certain information is required only once in three months or at some definite period, it would not be wise to design a system that makes the records available instantly.

5. Principle of cost. All records do not have the same value for the organisation and it is, therefore, unnecessary to keep elaborate records of all types of information because this would involve a huge expenditure. Incurring of unnecessary costs should be avoided. It is the job of the office management to see that the costs of maintaining records are carefully controlled and balanced against needs.

Records Manuals[2]

In order to control records effectively and efficiently, the office

[1]We have already discussed the purposes of records management in some of the preceding paragraphs.

[2]Littlefield and others, *op. cit.*

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manager should prepare a records manual, which outlines the following.

1. Basic purposes to be served by files and records storage.
2. Policies which apply to all records.
3. Responsibility for systems designs and for actual administration.
4. Master index of all items stored, where they are kept, and by what methods they are indexed and filed.
5. Procedure for users to obtain and return materials.
6. Standards guiding selection of filing equipment and supplies.
7. Records retention programme.

Analysing Record Keeping

Record keeping must be carefully analysed by applying the following conditions:

1. Are the records necessary? Do they achieve the purpose for which they are kept and is the purpose justifiable?

2. Are the records used? Some valueless records may be kept. However, all records which are not used may not be valueless. In fact, some very valuable records like titles to property, etc. are seldom used by the management.

3. Can unnecessary writing be avoided? Well recognised symbols and abbreviations should be used.

4. Can unnecessary copying be avoided?

5. Are the forms used the best for the purpose?

6. Is the equipment the best for the purpose?

7. Are the tools used the best for the purpose?

8. Can the record be combined or coordinated with another already existing?

FILING

Filing can be described as the core of records managements. It is rightly said that the keystone of office organisation is the maintenace of comprehensive, simple and efficient filing system. Filing cannot be treated as an unimportant function of the office, perhaps it is the most important amongst its functions. Denyer[1] gives a very simple definition of filing. He describes it as the "process of arranging and storing records so that they can be located when required." Thus filing, as process, has the following major objects:

[1]Denyer, *op. cit.*

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(*i*) proper arrangement of records, (*ii*) careful storing of records; and (*iii*) easy availability of the records. Without these objects in view, filing system will not be useful and the organisation will not function successfully.

Advantages of a Good Filing System

An efficient filing system takes care of the above mentioned objects and in the process offers the following advantages:

1. Protection. It protects the documents against possible loss or damage.

2. Ready reference. It serves as a useful method of obtaining information without loss of time without which a modern business cannot hope to function at all.

3. Planning. Future planning is greatly helped by the old records. They serve as the basis for future action.

4. Better control. Process of control is greatly facilitated by filing. A check is kept on incoming and outgoing letters, and letters requiring immediate attention are thus disposed of quickly.

5. Follow-up for sales. Follow-up for sales is unthinkable without a good filing system. When new products are launched, old customers are to be approached for cooperation. Also price changes and product changes are to be notified to the customers. This can be done only if old records are available.

6. Basis for evidence: Old records are useful as an evidence in a law suit or in proving titles and existence of the firm as well.

Essentials or Characteristics of a Good Filing System

A system of filing must achieve its objectives. However, in doing so a filing system may prove costly and complicated. Thus it may prove unsuitable in more than one way. It is, therefore, the duty of the office manager to institute a system of filing which is best suited to the needs of the business. There is no one best system of filing. However, in evolving a suitable system, the office manager should consider the following basic requirements (or essentials):

1. Compactness. A good system of filing must be compact. In other words, it should occupy the minimum of space because modern office space is costly.

2. Accessibility. This is fundamental to filing. Without accessibility records are useless. The importance of accessibility is greater in situations where records are to be written on.

3. Economy. Filing system must not be costly. There should be minimum cost of (*i*) its installation, and (*ii*) operation.

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4. Simplicity. The system should be simple. The workers may easily understand the system and operate it successfully.

5. Elasticity. The system should be elastic and flexible. It may be easily changed to suit the changing needs of business. Sometimes it may have to be expanded and sometimes it may be contracted.

6. Easy location (or reference). Records must be easily located when needed for reference. However, it is not proper to incur an unduly high expenditure to achieve this purpose.

7. Cross-reference. This is needed so that a document may be found under different headings, especially correspondence. This saves on time.

8. Retention. The records must be retained or discarded on the basis of their usefulness. Dead material must be discarded forthwith. There should be specific policy for this purpose.

9. Classification. It is necessary to employ the most suitable method of classification. For this purpose, too many miscellaneous files and too much bulk must be avoided.

10. Out-guides. Out-guides indicate the documents which have been withdrawn. They indicate the person or department withdrawing them. Out-guides are thus a necessity for a good filing system.

Information About Documents to be Filed

In any office documents of various types are to be preserved. There may be some documents which do not need any preservation, or some are to be preserved for a limited period of time, or some are to be preserved for an unlimited period of time. To achieve this end, it would be necessary to seek the following information about a document to be filed:

1. Importance. What is the importance of a document? This is basic to filing. It will be useless to retain useless records.

2. Purpose. The purpose behind filing a document must be ascertained.

3. Departmentation or sectionalisation. The department or section to which a document belongs must be found out so that it is accessible and easily located when the need arises.

4. Cross-reference. It is essential to seek information whether a document shall be needed by more than one department or not.

5. Type of classification. What is the type of classification to be used for a document must be found out and when its needs arises must be ascertained.

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Steps in Instituting a Filing System

One of the fundamental duties of the office manager is to institute a proper system of filing that serves the objectives of filing in particular and the objectives of the organisation in general. Besides, the system of filing should be constantly reviewed in the light of the changing needs of the organisation. Following steps are to be taken to institute a system of filing in any organisation:

1. **Listing of Documents.** Different documents to be stored must be listed. This list can be prepared after consulting the different functional departmental heads of the organisation.

2. **Determining period of storage.** The period of storage must be decided in accordance with the needs of the organisation. Again the various departmental heads can be consulted.

3. **Acquiring storage facilities.** Considering the needs of the organisation and the funds available for storage facilities, the storage space should be acquired. This is very important in all situations.

4. **Importance of different documents.** Importance of different documents must be properly understood. For example, important documents like and registration deeds, etc., may be safe with a bank or the attorney of the company.

5. **Determining system of classification.** It is desirable to select a proper system of classification that proves simple, efficient and economical.

6. **Determining equipment needs.** Filing equipment needs should be properly estimated and the necessary almirahs, filing cabinets and desks of the right type should be bought.

CLASSIFICATION

Before considering the various filing methods, it would be proper to consider classification. *Classification can be defined as the process of selecting headings under which documents are grouped or classified on the basis of common characteristics before filing takes place.* The objects of classification are subsidiary to the objects of a good filing method. Major object of classification is to enable the managers to select any one paper from among all the papers stored in the office without loss of time and at the least cost.

Methods of Classification

There are *five* methods of classification. They are:

1. **Alphabetical Classification,**

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2. Numerical Classification,
3. Geographical Classification,
4. Subject Classification, and
5. Chronological Classification.

1. Alphabetical classification. Alphabetical classification is based on the occurrence of the letters in the alphabet as it is done for the dictionary. Telephone directory is another example. If several names occur having the same first letter, the arrangement takes into account the subsequent letters also, for example:

A, Ab, Ac . . . . . etc.
B, Bb, Bc . . . . . etc.

Under the alphabetical classification, the filing of papers and documents is either by the names of the correspondents or the subjects. In a large office, it would be proper if 26 letters of the English alphabet are divided into small equal parts considering the letters which are bound to have more names. This method of classification can be used in correspondence filing, contracts, orders and staff records.

Advantages. Following are the advantages of alphabetical classification.

1. Easy and simple to understand.
2. No separate index is needed. It is self-indexing.
3. It is elastic, *i.e.*, new headings can be introduced without disturbing the original arrangement.
4. There is facility of grouping papers by name of the company, customer, etc.
5. There is useful provision for miscellaneous papers.

Disadvantages. Following are the disadvantages of alphabetical classification:

1. It takes a long time to find papers in large organisations.
2. There is congestion under common names.
3. It is difficult to forecast the space requirements under different letters of the alphabet.

2. Numerical classification. In this method of classification, each folder or record is given a number, and the files are placed in strict numerical order. For example M/s Supplies Ltd. may be assigned No. 25. If they deal in a number of lines, each line may be classified with a number beginning with 25, for example, 25.1, 25.2, 25.3, etc.

Types of numerical classification. Out of the many variants of the numerical classification, three systems are worth-noting: (*i*) ***Consecutive classification***; (*ii*) the ***Dewey classification system***; ***and*** (*iii*) ***terminal digit system.***

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Under *consecutive classification* method, folders are arranged in strict numerical order from 1 upwards. Each folder is numbered and titled by subject (or name) and placed at the rear of those folders which already exist.

Dewey classification system is used in libraries. In our country also most of the libraries still use this method of classification. Under this method each digit stands for a sub-classification. For example, 331.1163 may stand for Sociology (3), Economics (next 3) and so on.

Terminal digit system is not in any note-worthy use in our country. Hardly any organisation in our country makes use of this system. The system is used to expedite reference and to facilitate the transfer of old records. Under this system filing is first done with the terminal instead of filing according to the first two digits, then next two and so on. Thus all files with the last two digits are filed together, then the preceding two digits and so on. For example, if there are 2,000 folders in an organisation, a two-digit classification, from 00 to 99 may be suitable so that groups of 20 folders having similar terminal numbers are put together in the following manner:

Under 00 : 100, 200, 300, 400, 500 . . . 2,000
Under 01 : 01, 101, 201, 301, 401, 501 . . . 1,901
Under 10 : 010, 110, 210, 310, 410, . . . 1,910
Under 99 : 99, 199, 299, 399, 499 . . . 1,999

As the number of folders increases, digits can be increased. Where, for example,the number of folders is 10,000 to 20,000, a three digit terminal classification may be used.

The system of numerical classification is generally recommended for filing of orders, sales invoices, contracts (where numbered) and committee minutes.

Advantages. Following are the advantages of numerical classification:

1. There is greater accuracy in filing.
2. It is flexible since it has unlimited scope for expansion.
3. Easy referencing because the file number can be used as a reference.
4. Index can be used for other purposes, *e.g.*, address list.

Disadvantages. Following are the disadvantages of numerical classification:

1. The cost of index is usually high.
2. Usually the space taken by such classification is too large.
3. More time is needed to refer to the index.
4. It is not easy to arrange files for miscellaneous papers.
5. Errors in filing result due to transposition of figures.

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3. Geographical classification. As the name implies, this classification is based on the geographical origin of a document or paper. This system is combined with one of the two systems already discussed. The classification can be town-wise, district-wise, state-wise, country-wise and continent-wise. The steps in geographical classification are outlined as follows: (*i*) First of all geographical limits are set and areas are defined which will make one unit, for example, in export-import trade. (*ii*) Next step will be to arrange these countries in their alphabetical order, for example, Algeria, Bolivia, Canada, France, Great Britain, USA and USSR, etc. (*iii*) Within each sub-division, classification of different parties may be arranged alphabetically or numerically.

Such method of classification is very useful for customers' orders in a given area and for filing of correspondence according to town.

Advantages. Following are the advantages of geographicas classification:

1. Speedy location is possible.
2. Direct filing becomes possible.

Disadvantages. Following are the disadvantages of geographical classification:

1. Generally an index must be prepared.
2. Where knowledge of geography is poor, errors may result.
3. Geographical location must be properly known.

4. Subject classification. It is a method of classification in which all documents relating to a subject are brought together in one file, even though they may have come from different sources and from many different people. Following steps are taken to instal subject classification: (*i*) defining subjects; (*ii*) sub-dividing subjects into smaller fractions; (*iii*) assigning numbers or arranging subjects in alphabetical order, including sub-subjects; and (*iv*) miscellaneous folders are made for subjects which have not been classified.

Examples:

Main subjects classified:

Purchases
Sales
Advertising.

Sub-division of classified subjects:

Purchases . . . Scooter Parts
Purchases . . . Tractor Parts
Purchases . . . Motor Parts

There can be a further sub-division of the sub-divided subjects.

Advantages. Following are the advantages of subject classification:

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1. There is convenience of reference once the subject is known.
2. There is the possibility of unlimited expansion.
3. It proves very useful when it is desired to combine diverse papers about single subjects.

Disadvantages. Following are the disadvantages of subject classification:

1. It is not a useful method for miscellaneous papers.
2. Its greatest drawback is that it is difficult to classify.
3. An index may be needed which makes the method costly.
4. Since liberal cross-reference is often needed which makes the method time-consuming.

5. Chronological classification. Under this method various records are identified and arranged in strict date order and sometimes even according to the time of the day. It is a useful method for filing invoices and other vouchers associated with accounts.

Advantages. Following are the advantages of chronological classification:

1. It is a useful method where dates are known.
2. It is a useful method for overall classification, *e.g.*, correspondence in different years.
3. It is a very simple method.

Disadvantages. Following are the disadvantages of the chronological classification:

1. It is useful only for a small business.
2. It is also not useful, especially, where year is not known.
3. Incoming letters are usually to be separated from outgoing replies.

Combination of various methods of classification. More than one method of classification can be combined to obtain speed and economy. One such efficient combination is known as the *Alpha-numerical* system, which combines the two methods of alphabetical classification and numerical classification. In this system filing is alphabetical, but under each of the alphabet there are numbered folders.

Advantages of such a system are:

(*i*) It gives the ease of reference of the alphabetical method.

(*ii*) It is a very elastic method as it has the advantage of unlimited expansion of the numerical classification.

(*iii*) The method is quite simple to understand.

However, the method has its own drawbacks, chief of which is that it may become extra complicated in a large organisation, *e.g.*, 78A/106.31 which equals 1978 (chronological), A (alphabetical), 106.31 (numerical).

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Factors Affecting Choice of Method of Classification

Classification system greatly affects the speed, accuracy, economy flexibility and transfers to reserve storage of various papers and documents. It is, therefore, necessary that the right type of classification system is chosen. Following factors may be considered while choosing the appropriate classification system:

(*i*) **Convenience.** Which can be the most convenient method of reference?

(*ii*) **Size.** What is the size of the system? For example, numerical classification is best suited to larger systems.

(*iii*) **Simplicity of system.** Which is the most simple system? Alphabetical classification is the simplest method.

(*iv*) **Speed.** Speed of reference is a very important factor. Some mixed or compound classification can ensure this.

(*v*) **Elasticity.** The system must be elastic to give a scope for expansion. Numerical system, for example, serves this purpose well.

(*vi*) **Accuracy.** The system must ensure that there is no misfiling.

FILING EQUIPMENT AND METHODS OF FILING

Now we consider the various methods of filing which are based on the various type of equipment they use. These methods can be classified into two broad categories: (*i*) Old Methods; and (*ii*) Modern Methods. These two methods are considered briefly in the following paragraphs.

OLD METHODS OF FILING

Old methods of filing are those which evolved first. They are still in most common use in small and medium-sized offices. In fact some very large business organisations and government departments make an immense use of these methods in combination with more modern methods. A random survey would convince that they still remain to by very important methods of filing in our country. Important old methods of filing are as follows:

1. Spike or Pillar-and-Post Filing

It is the oldest as well as the cheapest method of filing. Under this method a thick steel wire with one sharp end and a wooden or plastic or steel round at the other end is used for filing. This lies

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placed on a desk or is hanged on a nail fixed on the wall after filing is done. Although it is very cheap and convenient method of filing, yet it has many *disadvantages*: (*i*) It is suitable for a very small business where records are few. (*ii*) Reference is inconvenient and time-consuming. (*iii*) Letters gather dust and are liable to get damaged.

A variation of this has been designed to eliminate some of the drawbacks stated above. Under this method every paper or document to be field is punched with two holes to fit in the spikes and is clamped down in its appropriate file. The file opens like a book and is very useful for making detailed and frequent references.

2. Guard Books and Metal Holders

Under these two methods the papers are pasted in bound books in their chronological order or they are held together by metal holders. The method of guard books (*i.e.*, pasting of papers in bound books) is often used for recording minutes of voluntary associations, companies, government committees, etc. The minutes, which may be criculated in printed or cyclostyled forms, are pasted in the books after their confirmation. These are two outdated methods with limited use and hence they have been discarded.

3. Expanding Alphabetical Cases

Under this method papers are usually placed alphabetically in numbered or lettered pockets or cases. This method can be useful for papers in transition only, *e.g.*, a dividend warrant or a share certificate ready for despatch. On the other hand, if it is used for permanent record, it has certain disadvantages, chief of which are: (*i*) It is suitable for a very small business where records are few. (*ii*) Referencing is inconvenient and time-consuming.

4. Docket or Pigeon-hole Method

This method is also old and outdated. Under this method, a specially constructed almirah is used for filing. It consists of so many partitioned dockets or partitioned portions which look like pigeonholes. Each docket is labelled with one or more letters of the alphabet. Records are put is the dockets for preservation. The method is still in use in the post offices of our country for sorting mail. The method is also used in conjunction with other methods of filing in large organisations. The daily inward mail is sorted out and put into the dockets allocated to various departments and sections an i is removed every day for transmission to these departments. Thus the method may prove

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useful for letters and papers in transition. Where the method is used as a permanent filing method, the papers are folded neatly and outside each folder, brief particulars of papers are given. The process of writing these particulars is called *docketing*. The pigeon-hole almirah is cleared at regular intervals, say, once a week or a month and unwanted letters and papers are destroyed. The papers which are needed for use in future may be tied up into small neat bundles and stored in boxes. The main advantage of this method is that it is simple to operate. It has the following *disadvantages:* (*i*) Location of recods is not easy. (*ii*) The records are liable to gather dust and get damaged. (*iii*) It is suitable for a very small business.

5. Box Files

Box files, as the name suggests, are made in the shape of boxes which are 7 to 10 centimetres in depth or height. Spring clips are fitted to hold the papers firmly. Quite often papers are first put into manila folders and then they are placed into these files. This process helps to preserve papers better and the papers also gather less dirt. Box files are a very cheap method of filing papers. The method has its own drawbacks. Its greatest drawback is that through constant use spring becomes loose and is unable to hold the papers firmly. The method may prove useful in situations where papers are to be stored for some time, or they are rarely required for use, or they are in transition.

6. Concertina File

This file is made of cardboard and has a number of separate pockets. The file is flexible in capacity because of the concertina-like gussets along each of the file.

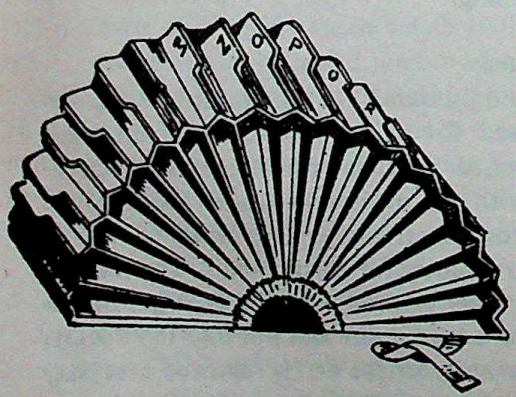

FIG. 11.1. Concertina File.

The file is often bound with a strap and can be described as a step towards vertical filing methods. The method is useful for papers in transition or for storage of petty cash vouchers and documents like insurance policies, share certificates. The concertina file has its drawbacks, chief of which is its limited capacity.

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7. Press Copy Book Method

Under this method various letters written during the day are copied out in a book called the *Letter Book*. This Letter Book is divided either on geographical or alphabetical basis. This method is used in a modified form where type-written copies are pasted in the Letter Book in the order in which they are written. This is the process of preparing the "*Master File*". This method has a limited use. It serves only as a mode of record and evidence, the record of a letter being written on a particular day. The method can prove more useful where cross-referencing is also provided on the face of each letter so that location of related documents becomes easy. The method, however, has its *drawbacks*, which are: (*i*) It is a very cumbersome method—the letter is to be written out in the register or pasted in it (*ii*) Letters and documents cannot be taken out for reference. (*iii*) Location of the desired papers is a difficult job and thus much time may be wasted in locating a paper needed urgently.

MODERN METHODS OF FILING

The various methods of filing discussed above have a limited use in modern business. In modern business, the methods of filing must take care of the following *challenges:* (*i*) the *speed of manufactures* and consequently the speed of purchases and sales; (*ii*) the large-size of business with sales territories spread all over the globe; (*iii*) the *laws* regulating the business organisation; and (*iv*) the *huge number of people* dealing with the organisation. However, it does not mean that the old methods are entirely useless. They have their own relevance even in a large office. Quite often one or the other old method of filing may be combined with the more modern methods to evolve an efficient filing system. For example, as already pointed out, the pigeon-hole method may be used for sorting incoming mail. Following are the two principal methods of filing: (1) Horizontal or Flat Filing; and (2) Vertical Filing.

Horizontal or Flat Filing

Under this method the documents or letters are placed in a horizontal or flat position, one on the top of another in order of date, and the latest is on the top. The letters are filed along with their replies. These files come in a variety of folders. More important of horizontal files are discussed below:

(*i*) **Flat Files.** The "files" (or covers) are made of cardboard or thick paper. A separate cover is allotted to each subject or customer.

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which contains all the relevant correspondence and documents in this file. The letters received, letters and invoices posted and other relevant documents get filed in the chronological order. Where a letter or a document needs to be filed at more than one place, the necessary number of copies is made and filed in each relevant file. The flat file has metal hinges which are inserted into the holes punched by the punching machine.

The files so prepared are stored in almirahs and placed on top of each other. They are also stored in drawers. In practice the following *steps* are taken to operate the flat files: (*a*) Files are numbered and indexed so that referencing is facilitated. (*b*) Whenever a file is taken out of its place, thick sheet of paper is inserted in its place on which details of its movements are given. This helps in easy location of the file. (*c*) It would be desirable to keep a separate index of files for each almirah, which is usually prepared on a thick sheet of paper. This index is either displayed outside the almirah or put into the almirah.

(*ii*) **Arch lever files.** It is a very popular type of horizontal file. It can be described as a strong card-board folder which contains strong metal arches which can be opened with the help of a lever. Records to be filed are punched with two holes with the help of the punching machine either at the top or on the left-hand side of the forms, and are then filed on the *metal uprights*, after the arch has been opened by the lever. The arch lever file facilitates alphabetical division which is done by inserting thick cards at suitable places. The greatest *advantage* of this file is that papers can be inserted or taken out with great ease without disturbing the order of other papers in the file. The file also offers the advantage of proper preservation of papers free from mutilation and dust, if the files are stored properly in the almirahs.

Advantages of horizontal filing. This method of filing has the following advantages: (*i*) It is a *simple* method to operate. (*ii*) It is a *cheap* method to instal. (*iii*) The *papers are kept in order* in which they have been filed. (*iv*) *Speedy reference* can be made to papers without removing them. (*v*) The *contents are kept clean and dust free*, especially where good covers and almirahs are used.

Drawbacks of horizontal filing. However, the method has the following drawbacks: (*i*) Papers cannot be taken out without dislocating other papers because the latest document is on top where a flat file is used. (*ii*) Where a file has become bulky, location of papers becomes very difficult. (*iii*) It is suitable for offices where transactions are not many.

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Vertical Filing

This method of filing can be said to be the most modern. It is so named because the contents are kept in an upright or standing position. This method of filing is the result of the growing needs of business organisation. The greatest drawback of the horizontal filing is the time consumed in locating a paper or document. As the business expands, the bulk of papers increases and location of a paper becomes a difficult and time-consuming activity. Vertical filing eliminates this drawback of horizontal filing. Hence it has become a very popular method of filing in large offices where number of subjects is large.

Equipment for vertical filing. To put vertical filing into operation, the following equipment is needed:

(*i*) *Folders.* Folders are used to contain the papers and documents. Folders are made of manila paper or some other strong paper. The back of the folder is higher than its front sheet. The tab or the raised part of the back sheet is used to write the contents and other necessary details about the subject. Usually for each subject or for a group of subjects, a separate folder is maintained. The contents of each folder should be indexed chronologically or in some other suitable manner so that easy location of a paper is possible.

These folders may be with or without "clips" or "holders". The folders without clips are better since papers can be put into them and taken out without disturbing the order in which they have been filed.

(*ii*) *Vertical filing cabinets.* The folders are kept in vertical filing

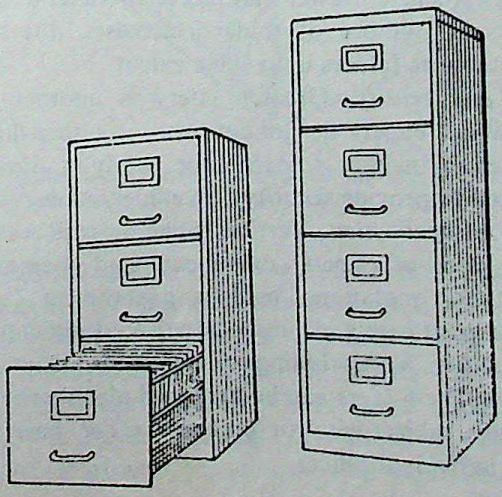

FIG. 11.2. Vertical Filing Cabinets.

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cabinets which are usually made of steel. In our country Godrej, Khira and Allwyn manufacture these cabinets. These cabinets are also fabricated locally in bigger cities by local manufacturers. Each cabinet may contain one to four drawers and each drawer can contain a number of files, say 200 or more. Each drawer may have a rod that runs through files and keeps them erect or it is fitted with an *expander* which slides forwards and backwards and holds the folders in their vertical position. Drawers may be divided into parts, usually through alphabetical classification. For this purpose "guide" cards are inserted indicating division of the drawer. If a new file is made out for a new subject it is put in its appropriate place. Whenever a folder is removed from the drawer, a memorandum card is put in its place explaining its whereabouts.

Advantages of vertical filing. Vertical filing offers many advantages over horizontal filing, which are summarised below:

1. *Economical.* Vertical filing is more economical on account of two reasons: (*i*) the folders are cheap, and (*ii*) many folders can be accommodated by a single filing cabinet. Hence there is saving in terms of money as well as space.

2. *Ready reference.* Any paper can be traced without wasting time. This is possible because there is a separate folder for each customer or subject and its contents are easily known due to description given on the tab or projected part of the back sheet. Besides, any paper can be inserted and taken out with great ease in a short time.

3. *Elasticity.* Filing cabinets provide ample scope for expansion of filing facility. A single drawer can accommodate a large number of folders. As the number of folders increases, the same drawer can accommodate more folders upto some extent.

4. *Safety and security.* Greater safety is another feature of this method of filing. Papers do not get torn or gather dust since they are well-protected by manila folders kept safely in drawers, which can also be locked to provide security to confidential documents.

5. *Universal application.* Vertical filing has proved useful in preserving all types of papers, documents and memorandum. Orders, invoices, letters, quotations, tenders, government circulars, etc., can be filed with great ease and preserved without difficulty.

6. *Adaptability.* Vertical filing can be easily adapted to all types of classification. The folders can be arranged alphabetically, numerically, geographically, subject-wise or on some other basis according to the needs of an individual office.

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Suspension Filing

This is an improvement over the vertical filing cabinets. It is a variation of the vertical filing method. While folders are stored vertically in a drawer, there is a possibility that they slip down and cause disorder in the drawer. To overcome this difficulty, principle of suspension filing was introduced. Under this method the top edges of the drawer are fitted with rectangular frame. The folders are suspended on the "railing" with the help of metallic bars which hold them firmly.

There are two types of suspension filing:

(*a*) *Flat-topped*, where the bars support a flat top, which carries an index strip of paper (Fig. 11.3); (*b*) *Index-tabbed system* (Fig. 11.4).

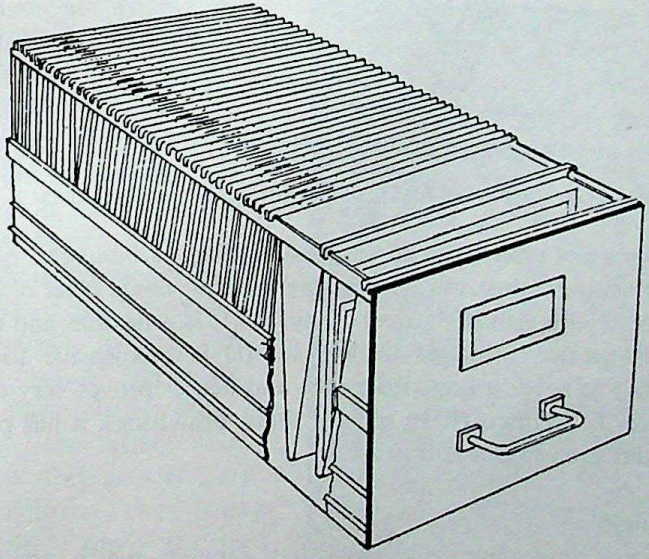

FIG. 11.3. Suspended pocket filing with flat-top folders where the reference strip is made on a tab which is slightly inclined backwards.

These two types of suspension filing can be used and each has its merits and demerits. It can be said that the flat-topped system (*i*) gives greater speed of reference, (*ii*) means less misfiling, and (*iii*) provides a means whereby coloured signals can be used for indicating various types of information. On the other hand, index-tabbed system (*i*) gives a more natural angle of vision, and (*ii*) tabs can be placed in different positions to indicate the classification possition.

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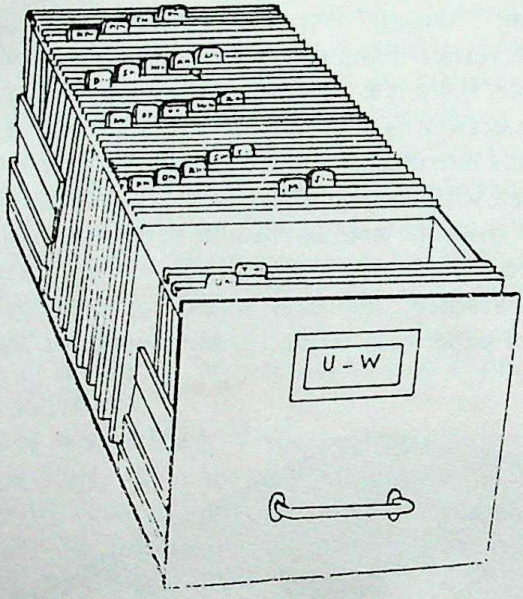

FIG. 11.4. Suspended-folder filing with index-tabbed folders.

Advantages and drawbacks of suspension filing. *Advantages of* suspension filing are almost the same as the vertical filing, chief of which are: (*i*) Documents can be located easily, (*ii*) It is a flexible and elastic method. It has two principal *drawbacks*: (*i*) It is expensive to instal and run. (*ii*) It needs a large floor area and hence proves very expensive in terms of rent costs. In spite of these drawbacks, it has proved very popular even in our country.

Lateral Filing

Suspension filing described above has cabinets which are usually over 60 cm deep. Thus they take a lot of space. Besides every time a file is needed it is necessary to open a drawer and lean over it. To avoid these two difficulties, lateral filing is becoming more and more common in modern organisations. In lateral filing, documents are filed laterally along a shelf, the pockets having index strips on the visible ends of the files. The shelves can be installed upto a height of 2 metres or so and also their depth is much less than 60 cm. In fact, even existing almirahs, cupboards etc., can be used for this purpose.

Lateral filing is also becoming very popular in our country. Offices of many large organisations are using lateral filing. The method has proved very useful where the number of correspondents is very large since it offers many *advantages*, chief of which are: (*i*) *Saving in*

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space takes place which results in lower rent costs. Rent costs are very high in urban locations. (*ii*) *Saving in time* is another advantage due to quick location of a folder. (*iii*) *Saving in equipment costs* is another great advantage. On a rough estimate there is a saving in cost upto 50% when compared with vertical or suspension filing. (*iv*) *Unlimited elasticity*. The method is highly elastic and offers an almost unlimited scope for expansion.

Open Shelf Filing

It is a method of filing in which open shelves, as used in the library, are used for storing folders. Usually lateral filing method is followed in which files are suspended vertically. However open shelves may also be used for horizontal filing. This method has proved very popular in the West with organisations like insurance companies. Classification is done numerically since policies are also issued serialwise. The open shelves can go up to the ceiling level (say 9 feet to 10 feet) and between two rows of shelves, space is left for movement. Ladders are also used where the shelves are high.

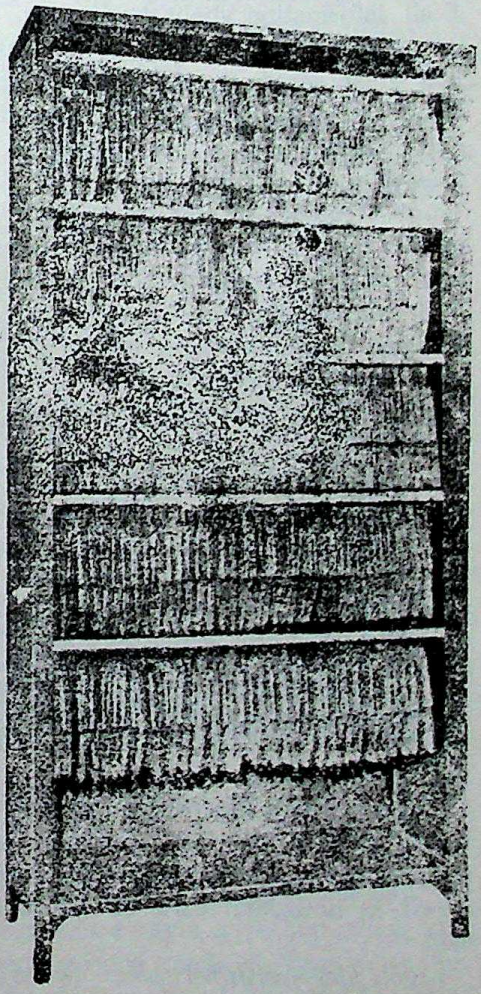

FIG. 11.3. Open Shelf Filing.

Open shelf filing offers mostly the same advantages as those offered by lateral filing, *viz.*, there is saving in time for reference; there is almost unlimited scope for expansion and there is

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saving in equipment costs. However, open shelves may need more space than the vertical filing cabinets but then the shelves can be raised much higher and thus this factor balances the floor rent costs.

Visible Filing—Cards Filing

Visible files have become an important ingredient of the functioning of office in USA and Europe. In our country, their usage is restricted. Most offices, some of them very big, still use other methods of filing. Visible filing methods are quite different from the "blind" filing techniques in which the record is to be located through a search. On the other hand, the visible files allow visibility of all information about the files, *viz.*, the names, numbers and other data recorded on the edges of the cards. Thus referencing can be at a great speed. Besides, it is possible to insert new information and papers, etc. in the files at will without losing time. These files are used for maintaining many types of records, such as, records of inventories of different types; records of customers and suppliers; records of employees regarding work, leave, wages and retirement benefits; shares registers, register of mortgages; records of job and order progress; records of cost analysis; records of advertising and sales contracts; records of statements; cash flow data of different divisions of the business; and a variety of other records which are prepared for frequent reference.

Advantages of visible files. Following are the main advantages of the visible files:

1. *Speed.* Speed is a great virtue of the visible files. Reference to filed data can be made at a great speed; and also the posting of materials to files can be done in no time.

2. *Use of signal.* Signals and tabs can be used for instant attention. Such a use of signals and tabs saves on time since closer examination of individual records is avoided.

3. *Information on edges.* Information which is needed for frequent referencing can be entered on the visible edges of the cards. Thus the need to refer to the main body of the files is eliminated, adding greatly to speed.

Types of visible files. There are two types of visible files based on the position in which the cards are kept. The cards can be kept either in horizontal position or in vertical position. Thus they can be described as horizontal card or visible files and vertical card or visible files.

Visible files – cards horizontal. In the case of horizontal visible files, cards are filed horizontally in a shallow slide or tray in such a manner

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that the bottom margin of each card is exposed, providing for quick visibility. The cards in these files are kept in one of the ways: (*i*) the top edge of the card is fastened directly onto the tray, or (*ii*) "pockets" made of strong kraft paper are fastened directly onto the tray and the card is held in place by inserting the bottom edge into a flap made of a U-shaped plastic strip at the bottom of the pocket; and the top of the card is held by inserting the corners into slots already cut in the pocket.

Visible files—cards vertical. In this visible file, cards are filed vertically. Cards of different sizes from 3 to 20 inches in width and 5 to 12 inches in height are used. It is common to cut out one or both of the upper corners of the cards to allow diagonal indexing margins. Besides, the horizontal and one of the vertical margins of the card are used for indexing. An offset arrangement is followed in putting the cards in the file so that top, diagonal and side margins of the card are visible. The cards are held in position by means of a notched arrangement at the bottom of the card which fits into a receiving device at the bottom of the file allowing for easy insertion and removal of cards. Both sides of the cards can be used for signalling.

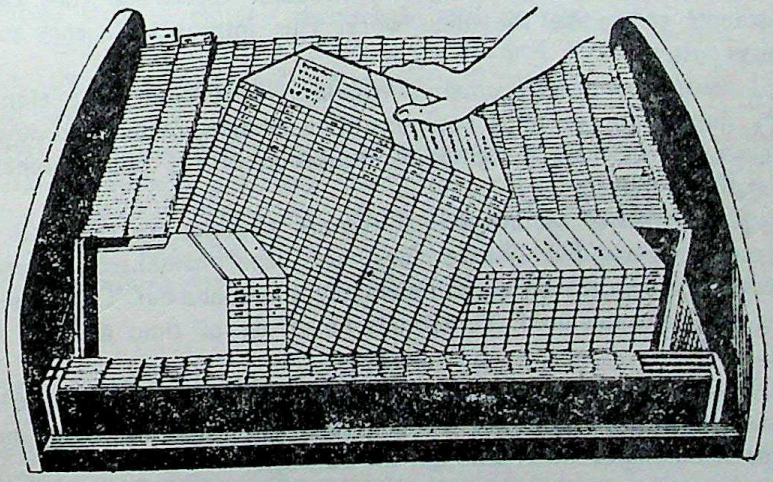

FIG. 11.6. Arrangement of cards in a file. Groups of cards can be removed and replaced just as easily as one card. This is commonly called an open tub file.

As many as 7,000 cards or more can be kept in a single file unit.

Visible cards can also be kept in book form in a binder which can contain as many as 2,000 cards. Visible cards in book form are portable and also allow posting surface at desk height. The binder

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lies perfectly flat when open, to lock shifting of record sequence, and to lift and guide sheets into proper position when the binder is closed after use.

CENTRALISED VERSUS DECENTRALISED FILING

The office manager in any organisation has to take a very vital decision regarding the working of the filing system, namely, should there be centralised filing or decentralised filing. Before we discuss which of these two should be adopted in the office, let us consider these two systems of filing briefly.

Centralised Filing

It is a system where all records relating to the various departments of a concern (or a government department) are filed at one place or in the central office. In other words, individual departments or sections of an organisation do not do the filing of records.

Advantages of centralised filing. There are many advantages of centralised filing, chief of which are as follows:

(*i*) *Specialisation.* Since filing is centralised, specialised staff can be trained to handle the filing work. This improves efficiency and reduces cost.

(*ii*) *Elimination of duplication of equipment.* Centralised filing eliminates duplication of filing equipment like cabinets, folders and other supplies. In fact there is optimum utilisation of the filing cabinets under this system.

(*iii*) *Avoidance of duplication of records.* Unnecessary duplication of records is avoided. Where files are departmentalised, several copies of orders, invoices and letters might be made out. Centralised filing eliminates this need. This results in saving of time as well as costs.

(*iv*) *Uniform work-procedure.* Due to central filing, uniform work-procedures will be followed. This results in projecting only one image of the organisation amongst the outsiders.

(*v*) *Better supervision.* Centralised filing also means better supervision and control of filing. Coordination also becomes easier.

(*vi*) *Easy location of records.* Since documents concerning a particular outsider are at one place, location of records becomes easy. This saves on time and consequently filing costs get reduced.

(*vii*) *Easy cross-referencing.* Cross-referencing becomes easy because different records are available at one place. This improves the efficiency of the filing system.

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Drawbacks of centralised filing. Centralised filing has its drawbacks too, which are summarised below:

(*i*) *Lack of departmental knowledge.* Centralised filing staff may lack the specialised knowledge concerning a particular department and may have to rely on the departments for filing papers concerning each of them. This may thus result in misfiling.

(*ii*) *Time-consuming.* When a particular department needs an information, it may not be available quickly, especially, where departments are widely dispersed.

(*iii*) *Inconvenience.* Where records are needed frequently by departments, centralisation of filing may cause a lot of inconvenience. This may also cause frequent delays.

(*iv*) *Lack of training to juniors.* Where central filing system is applied, the juniors in different departments may not get training for filing. Thus replaceable staff, in times of emergency or on the resignation of an assistant, may not be easily available in the organisation.

(*v*) *Increased staff costs.* In this regard, Whitehead[1] points out, "Filing in departments is often used as a routine time filler which enables staff to employ themselves busily at times when other work is available. If these activities are performed centrally by specialists, then total staff employed must rise." This would mean increased staff costs.

(*vi*) *Functional inefficiency.* Where organisation is very large, functional inefficiency is bound to occur beyond a certain stage if central filing is followed. Papers may not be filed in time nor they may become easily available when required. In fact filing and many other office operations cannot be done efficiently if they are done on a very large scale.

Departmental or Decentralised Filing

It is a system of filing in which filing is done by different departments independently and not centrally at one place. In other words, the filing equipment and the necessary staff are located in each department or decentralised.

Advantages of departmental or decentralised filing. Departmental filing offers certain advantages over centralised filing. They are briefly outlined below:

(*i*) *Time-saving.* Departmental filing saves on time. Any document needed is readily available within no time.

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[1] Whitehead, Geoffrey, *Office Practice*, W.H. Allen, London.

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(*ii*) *Proper filing.* Specialised knowledge about the department helps eliminate the chances of mis-filing. Thus safety of papers is also ensured.

(*iii*) *Easy availability.* Since papers are located within a department, they are obtained at any time. Referencing thus is easy.

(*iv*) *Lesser staff costs.* As already pointed out, filing is often used as a routine time filler for the staff. This helps to reduce staff costs.

(*v*) *Functional efficiency.* Functional efficiency is bound to occur because filing operations of a department are done on a smaller scale. Smaller scale would ensure greater functional efficiency.

(*vi*) *Training of juniors.* Sufficient number of juniors would get trained under the departmental filing. This may mean easy availability of replacements in case of an emergency.

Drawbacks of departmental or decentralised filing. Departmental filing has its own drawbacks, which are:

(*i*) *Duplication of equipment.* Costly equipment, like filing cabinets, almirahs and shelves are to be duplicated as they are needed for filing in each department.

(*ii*) *Lack of specialisation.* Specialised staff cannot be employed in each department to do the filing work. If specialised staff is employed in each department, it would add to the cost of running the office.

(*iii*) *Lack of standardisation of work-procedures.* Under departmental filing, work procedures cannot be standardised. It is a well-known fact that standardisation of work-procedures leads to greater efficiency of the office.

(*iv*) *Unnecessary duplication of records.* Where documents concern more than one department, duplication of records is needed for each department. This increases the costs of duplication and may also prove time-consuming.

(*v*) *Lack of supervision and control.* Departmental filing lacks proper supervision. Thus control of filing becomes a difficult process. Coordination also becomes difficult because of decentralised location of records.

Considering the relative advantages and drawbacks of both the systems, it is difficult to make a clear-cut choice of a filing system. However, every organisation has to choose between the centralised and the decentralised system of filing. The decision will depend upon the relative merits and demerits of a particular system in a given situation. In practice, however, the following suggestions may be noted. Where the organisation is large it would be better to do centralised filing with regard to matters concerning the whole of the

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organisation, like documents relating to registration of company, charges, mortgages, law suits, etc., Decentralised filing will be required to be done for matters concerning different departments. In other words, the two systems will be combined to run any large-sized organisation efficiently. The underlying principles should be the following: "Files should be located in such a position that they can be readily available *where* and *when* wanted."

QUESTIONS

1. What is records management? Discuss its objects. Explain the different principles of records management.

2. What are records manuals? State their contents.

3. You are the in charge of the records department. How would you analyse records for the purpose of their maintenance?

4. What do you understand by the term records administration? What are the essentials of an efficient system of records administration?

5. What filing system would you recommend to maintain proper and efficient record of correspondence with about 10,000 customers of your company. Enumerate the advantages of this system over other available systems. (*Co. Secy. Prel. '80*).

6. What are the characteristics of an efficient filing system? What information about the documents to be filed is necessary in devising a good filing system? (*Delhi B. Com.*)

7. Discuss the various methods of filing.

8. You are the filing supervisor in a large office. Your opinion has been sought to instal a suitable filing system. Make your recommendation, giving reasons.

9. What is meant by classification? Discuss the different methods of classification briefly. Which method would you consider best and why?

10. You are the office manager of a medium-sized fast growing organisation and the management is faced with the problem of decentralisation of filing. Make suitable recommendations, giving reasons.

11. State the advantages and disadvantages of "central filing system" in a factory where different departments correspond with the same outside parties on subjects like design, price, Negotiations, Delivery Dates, Bill Collection, etc. What system of filing would you recommend? (*I.C.W.A.*).

12. Write notes on (*a*) Open shelf filing; (*b*) Lateral filing (*c*) Suspension filing.

13. What are visible files? State its different types. Do you think that visible files offer any advantages?

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Chapter 12

RECORDS MANAGEMENT—II

INDEXING

INDEX is anything that "points out" or "indicates". *Indexing can be described as a method of providing indicators for a body of data or collection of records.* The term "indexing" should not be confused with the term "classification." Classification is the method of filing while indexing is basically the method used for making reference to the matter filed.

Object of Indexing

The principal object of indexing is to assist filing so that filed papers are located easily and quickly whenever they are needed. Indexing thus adds to the efficiency of the filing method. It ensures speed and consequently economy results due to increased speed. The object of indexing is best achieved where the right type of indexing system is chosen. Where files are arranged in geographical-cum-alphabetical or only alphabetical order, an index is not needed. However, in other systems of classification, it becomes essential to provide an index for customers, suppliers, credit ratings, telephone numbers and so on. Index is also required for different kinds of registers and ledgers.

Essentials of a Good System of Indexing

In order to achieve its objectives, a good system of indexing should have the following essential features:

1. It should be *simple.*
2. It should be *economical* in operation.
3. It should allow for *speed.*
4. It should *go well with the system of filing* in the organisation.
5. It should be *flexible* to allow for expansion when needed.

Advantages of a Good System of Indexing

A good system of indexing, *i.e.*, which goes well with the filing

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methods in the organisation, offers the following benefits in the field of records management:

1. Easy location. The required papers and documents are located very easily with the help of their index. Referencing is not a painful process.

2. Easy cross-referencing. A good system of indexing also ensures easy cross-referencing and thus saves on time and botheration.

3. Lower costs. The operating costs of records administration are also low due to improved efficiency of the records administration. Time is not wasted in locating the necessary documents or papers.

SYSTEMS OR METHODS OR TYPES OF INDEXING[1]

There are five main types of indexes, which are summarised below:

1. ORDINARY PAGE INDEX

This consists of a page for each letter of the alphabet fitted with a tab showing the letter, and on each page are written the names beginning with that letter and quoting the relevant page numbers. This is the type of index which is similar to the next given at the end of this book where subject-matter is alphabetically classified and then relevant page numbers are given against each heading or sub-heading. This type of index is most commonly used for the minutes, customers' and suppliers' ledgers, etc. This type of indexing may take the following two forms:

(*i*) *A separate book*, when it is also called *bound index*. Index is prepared alphabetically in a bound book or register.

(*ii*) *Loose sheets*, which may be put into the front of each file. It is also called *loose-leaf book index*.

Advantages of Ordinary Page Index

This method of indexing has many advantages, chief of which are: (*i*) It is a very *simple* method of indexing which can be easily understood by everyone. (*ii*) It is also a *cheap* method. Very little equipment is needed to put the method in operation.

Drawbacks of Ordinary Page Index

It has the following drawbacks: (*i*) The names are entered on each page in the order in which they occur (*ii*) Names must be deleted once they are no longer of any use and this may present a very

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[1]Denyer, *op. cit.*

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shabby appearance. (*iii*) The greatest drawback is that it is an inflexible method of indexing. If more names are to be added, there may not be sufficient space and thus it may require re-writing of all the names from time to time. It, therefore, causes great inconvenience from time to time.

In spite of its many drawbacks, ordinary page index is very popular with small organisations because of its simplicity and low operating costs. The limited flexibility of the system also copes with the changing needs of such organisations. It is also successfully used in larger organisations for limited purposes, *e.g.*, the record of minutes, plant ledger of a large manufacturing organisation with a limited range and number of machines.

2. LOOSE OR VERTICAL CARD INDEX

To eliminate the drawbacks of ordinary page index method, vertical or loose card index is used. Abbe' Jean Rozier (1734-93), a Frenchman, is said to be the inventor of this method of indexing. Each subject, customer or document is allotted with a separate card on which the necessary information appears. These cards are of small size (12.5 cms $\times$ 7.5 cms). These cards are classified and arranged alphabetically, geographically and numerically. Alphabetical classification is quite popular. In some cases, more than one card may be prepared for the same set of information and each card may be arranged in a different manner. For example, in a library usually two cards are prepared, one of which is arranged on the basis of the author and the other is arranged on the basis of the title of the book.

The index cards are filed vertically. Of course they can be filed horizontally as well, in which case the name card index instead of the vertical card index would be more appropriate, where they are filed vertically, they are put in steel or wooden drawers. A hole is punched into each card and a rod runs through the cards to keep the cards in their proper places. Usually the upper left portion is used to provide the index. Often guide cards are used to provide broad classification. Where the cards are arranged horizontally in a manner that top of all the cards in a row is visible simultaneously. The cards have proved very useful not only to business but also to other institutions. Some of the important uses to which they are put are summarised below:

(*a*) *In a manufacturing business.* (*i*) to keep particulars of the employees;

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ration of the Customers' Address Book;

(*iii*) to keep accounts of customers;

(*iv*) to keep accounts of store items;

(*v*) to keep records of investments;

(*vi*) to keep records of different machines;

(*vii*) to keep records of instalment sales; and

(*viii*) to keep summary records and addresses of various Government departments with which the business deals.

(*b*) *In a bank*. (*i*) to keep the specimen signatures of the customers;

(*ii*) to keep the addresses and account numbers of different customers and debtors;

(*iii*) to keep employee records, etc.

(*c*) *In a library*, the catalogue of books is prepared with the help of cards.

Advantages

(*i*) **Economy**. The system is quite cheap to instal and run. The only equipment, besides cards, s the drawers of the desired size.

(*ii*) **Elasticity**. The system is highly elastic. New cards can be inserted at any time and at any place without disturbing the order of index.

(*iii*) **Ease of writing**. Additional information can be written at any time with great ease.

(*iv*) **Simplicity**. The system is very simple. Every person in the organisation can operate the system with great ease and without any kind of intensive training.

(*v*) **Removal of dead cards**. Dead cards can be removed with ease without disturbing the arrangement of other cards.

(*vi*) **Re-grouping**. Cards can be re-grouped at any time to suit the changing needs of the business.

(*vii*) **Use of guide cards**. Guide cards and tabs can be used to highlight certain transactions, *e.g.*, customers in arrears, items of inventories in short supply, etc.

(*viii*) **Elimination of the need for overloading**. Blank cards are never inserted. Thus over-loading of index is eliminated.

(*ix*) **Ease of cross-referencing**. Cross-referencing is easy and time is not wasted to have a cross-reference.

(*x*) **Sub-division**. Sub-division of cards can be done with great ease. Sub-division, for example, of the cards-ledger may facilitate an on-the-spot check of defaulting customers.

(*xi*) **Multiple uses and standardisation**. Cards can be put to many uses and they also lead to standardisation of equipment and proce-

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dures without difficulty.

(*xii*) **Address-book.** Cards can be used to prepare the customers' address book and can also contain other necessary data about the customers.

(*xiii*) More than one person can consult the card index at the same time.

Drawbacks

(*i*) **Fraudulent substitution.** Cards may be substituted to commit or conceal fraud where card ledgers are kept.

(*ii*) **Difficulty in supervision.** A constant check is needed to see that cards removed for reference are put back in their proper places; and this is a very difficult task.

(*iii*) **Soiling of cards.** Cards get torn or soiled through constant handling. Thus they will have to be replaced from time to time.

(*iv*) **Greater cost.** The system is costly to instal when compared to the ordinary page index.

(*v*) **Difficult location.** It takes a long time to locate a particular index card than under the visible card system.

3. VISIBLE CARD INDEX

Under this system, the cards are laid flat in a shallow tray or metal frame. Each card is attached to a metal hinge and overlaps the one before it so that name, address and other particulars are visible without touching other cards. The frames or trays can be attached vertically to the metal stands or they can be put horizontally into cabinets. The data can be written an the front or back of the card with ease because of the hinges to which cards are attached.

Advantages

Visible card index has become very popular since it offers many advantages, more important of which are as follows:

(*i*) *Speed.* Cards are located easily and thus they can be referred to with speed, which adds to the efficiency of the office.

(*ii*) *Compactness.* In the same space, many more cards can be accommodated.

(*iii*) *Easy removal of cards.* Cards can be removed with great ease whenever the need arises to do so.

(*iv*) *Easy insertion of information.* Additional information can be easily written on the cards without even disturbing the order in which they have been kept.

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(*v*) *Aid to management.* Visible cards system has been useful to management to control purchases, inventories, sales, production and other functions of a business.

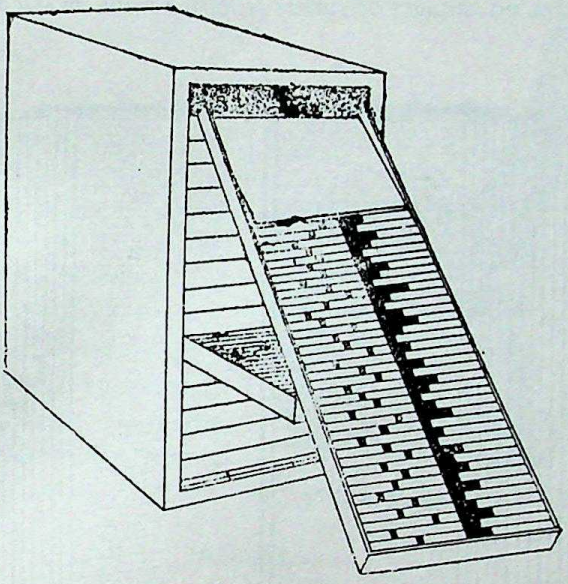

FIG. 12.1 Cabinet to visible card records, showing a filing tray withdrawn from cabinet, and signalling visible edges of cards.

(*vi*) *Easy listing of customers and suppliers.* Listing of customers and suppliers becomes easy. In the West, photocopy of the tray having visible cards is done for reference and record.

Drawbacks

The system of visible card index has a few drawbacks.

(*i*) *Costly equipment.* In our country, the requisite type of equipment is quite costly.

(*ii*) *Need for training.* It is necessary to train staff for visible card index.

4. STRIP INDEX

We find that in every office, there is need of a list of names, telephone numbers, addresses etc. The strip index has been designed to meet this objective. Under this system one line entry is made on a narrow strip of card-board or wood. Usually each strip is devoted to a single

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item. These strips are put in a frame in such a way that they can be taken out and replaced with ease. Frames can be fixed on the walls or put on the table in a book form or even arranged on a rotary stand which can be turned round to look at any part of the index. Essentially, the system is a variation of the visible cards system and offers the same advantages or suffers from the same drawbacks.

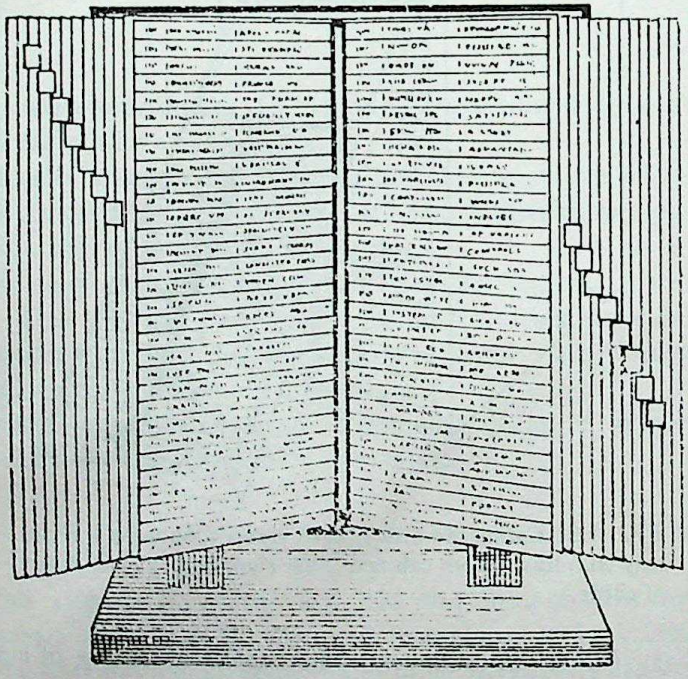

FIG. 12.2. Strip index—desk stand.

5. WHEEL INDEX

This system of index has become popular in the West. To increase the speed of reference, this method is being used. The method is a variation of the visible card system discussed earlier. Under this system the cards are mounted round the hub of the wheel. A single wheel can hold as many as 5,000 cards. Cards can be taken out or inserted into the slits of the metal rod whenever needed. An entry can be made on a card by applying the brakes to keep the wheel fixed. Cards can be examined without removing them from the wheel.

Advantages

Wheel index offers many advantages, chief of which are:

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(*i*) *Speed.* The system offers a great speed of reference and thus promotes efficiency of the office systems.

(*ii*) *Economy in space.* Economy in space is another benefit of the wheel index. In a small space thousands of cards can be accommodated.

(*iii*) *Flexibility.* The system is also highly flexible. Cards can be inserted or taken out without disturbing the order of other cards. Besides cards can be added and thus expansion of the card system is possible.

(*iv*) *Ease in writing.* Entries can be made in the cards without removing them from the wheel. This incidentally means saving of time.

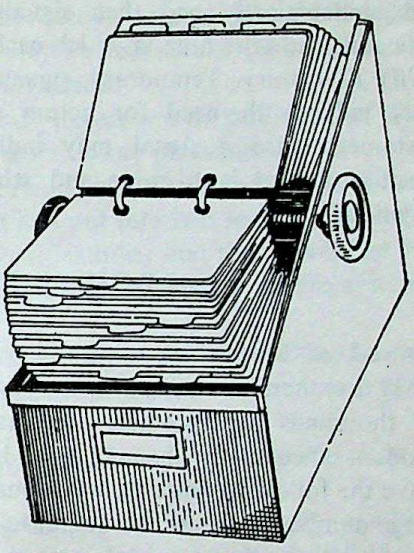

FIG. 12.3. Portable Rotary Card Index.

SIGNALS

All the visible indexes discussed above offer the advantage of combining signalling with them. *A 'signal' can be described as a metal clip, plastic tab or adhesive material which is attached to the exposed edge of record.*

Such a signal may be very small or even big enough to write a very brief description on it.

Objects and Advantages of Signals

The object of signals is to draw immediate attention to certain facts recorded on the cards. For example, on staff records a blue signal may indicate membership of the staff pension scheme, or a red signal on staff records may mean monthly deduction of life insurance premium. They also give a quicker and easier identification of the normal main classification. Their main advantage is that they *supplement main classification.* For example, they may be attached to a folder or other record permanently to indicate a second and subsidiary classification.

Types of Signalling

Signalling can be of two types:

(*i*) *Permanent.* Signals may be attached permanently to a folder

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or record with the object of supplementing the main classification. For example, folders containing sales correspondence may be classified alphabetically and then signals may be attached to the folders indicating the sales area in which each customer is located.

(*ii*) *Temporary.* Temporary signals are used temporarily and generally indicate the need for action or caution. For example, on a customer's card a signal may indicate when credit is stopped or when settlement is overdue and when it is necessary to press for payment.

LOOSE-LEAF BINDERS

Loose-Leaf Binders have proved very useful in filing and indexing. They are, therefore, widely used in organisations like banks with tens of thousands of customers accounts. In fact they are used in every modern office due to their many advantages. The loose-leaf binders have the following *features*, which make them very useful: (*i*) A very large number of sheets can be put in a single binder. (ii) Sheets can be put into binder at any place at any time.

Types of Loose-Leaf Binders

Following are the five different types of loose-leaf binders.

1. Post binders. In these binders two or more metal posts connect the covers. These posts may be either (*i*) fixed, or (*ii*) flexible. Where they are flexible, they can expand or contract by small sections or telescopically. To fit into the posts, the sheets are punched.

2. Ring binders. The covers of ring binders are fitted with a spine, which limits their thickness. Two or more rings are connected to the inside portion of this spine. These rings can be opened to insert or take out the sheets of paper, which are punched to fit into the rings.

3. Spring back binders. Like the ring binders, spring binders have a spine like a bound book. This spine is fitted with strong springs to hold the inside edges of the covers. Sheets of paper are not punched because they can be held together firmly by the springs.

4. Prong binders. They are also ring binders. There are prongs to hold the papers but these prongs do not close in pairs to form rings. They do not overlap as they are spaced out on each side.

5. Thong binders. Since two or more round or flat flexible thongs join the covers, hence the name. These thongs hold the papers firmly. Sheets of papers are punched to fit into these thongs. The covers can hold a number of papers subject to their capacity.

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Advantages of Loose Leaf Binders

Loose-leaf binders offer the following advantages.

(*i*) **Easy insertion.** Sheets can be easily inserted into the binders. To begin with, only one sheet may be inserted for each subject or account and more can be added when needed.

(*ii*) **Easy removal of sheets.** "Dead" papers can be taken out of the binders with great ease and can be stored away permanently.

(*iii*) **Flexibility.** Where sheets cannot be contained in a single binder, papers can be easily divided and put into two separate binders. This gives loose leaf binders unlimited flexibility and this flexibility is unique since the sequence of records is not disturbed when the system is expanded.

(*iv*) **Easy and prompt location.** Guide sheets or tabled index can be put into the binders at different places which can help in easy and prompt location of a needed sheet.

(*v*) **Economy.** Time and labour are saved because the system allows speed of reference.

(*vi*) **Ease of self-indexing.** Classification of record sheets can be done in any manner to suit the needs of the organisation and they can also be made self-indexing.

SELECTION OF A SUITABLE SYSTEM OF INDEXING

Selection of a suitable system of indexing is a very difficult task. Every organisation must determine its own indexing system by considering the requirements of its filing system. The installation of a suitable indexing system will depend mainly on the following factors: (1) The type and the extent of information needed. (2) Whether information is to be added and subtracted frequently. (3) Whether the card is to be taken out for the purpose of recording information. (4) How far the system allows for the use of signalling system? (5) What is the amount of money available for the purpose?

There is no doubt that the card indexing secures the maximum advantages for records management. In a small organisation, loose or vertical card index method can be used. However, in a large organisation, visible card index is the right method of indexing because of the numerous advantages this method offers. The method of signalling can also be very easily combined with the methods of card idexing. Strip indexing is extremely useful for use by the secretaries of senior executives and the senior executives themselves where certain aspects of business are of confidential nature.

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Steps in How to File a Letter

1. Locating the folder. Find out if there is a file folder for that particular letter. To locate folder either the card index may be used or files may have to be referred where alphabetical classification is done.

2. Putting the letter in the folder. If a file folder is there, place the new letter on top since letters are filed in chronological (from the Greek word "Khronos"—time) order. This is done to make it simple for staff to locate in case of future need.

3. Making new folder. If there is no file folder, open a new one for future records; or the letter may be placed in the miscellaneous file in alphabetical order.

4. Cross-referencing. Consider whether cross-referencing is needed. If so, the letter may be either (*i*) filed at the chief place and a cross-reference to it is made at other places, or (*ii*) copied out and a copy of it is filed at each place where its reference is needed.

Steps in How to Find a Letter

1. Find out if their is a *file folder* for the letter now needed. To locate the folder either the card index may be used or files may have to be referred where alphabetical classification is done.

2. *Out marker* or out-guide is used to record the destination if the whole file is sent to a particular person.

3. Where there is a file folder, find it and *remove the file.*

4. Where the letters are in the '*miscellaneous*' *file*, remove only the correspondence needed for the purpose and place the 'out' marker at the appropriate point. Put this correspondence in a temporary file folder for the person who wants it.

5. Where the *request slip* calls for a particular letter only from a file, take out the letter, mark its position with an 'out' marker and then send it in a temporary file folder to the person who needed it.

6. Where a '*tickler*' system is used, record in the system file 'out' and its destination. This is necessary so that the letter is not lost and a request for its return can be made at a later date if the applicant fails to return the same in time.

FILING ROUTINE

Filing routine refers to the process of (*i*) receiving documents, papers and memoranda for placing them in files, and (*ii*) issuing the files so made for reference and use. Filing routine is thus a series of steps to be taken for the preservation and use of papers.

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Steps in Filing Routine

Following are the steps in filing routine:

(*i*) **Order to file.** A document cannot be filed unless a responsible official orders it to be filed. The officer concerned writes the order, signs it and puts the date. It is on this basis that the filing clerk files the document.

(*ii*) **Classifying documents.** Documents are then filed under different heading and titles to facilitate their location in course of time.

(*iii*) **Coding and indexing.** The documents to be filed are then coded. The code is written on them and then they are indexed.

(*iv*) **Cross-referencing.** Sometimes certain documents relate to more than one file. They are to be filed under the most appropriate heading but a cross-reference card or sheet is inserted in every other relevant file for easy referencing or copies are to made be out are fil are filed in every relevant file.

(*v*) **Reminder slip or follow-up.** Certain documents or papers require a follow-up action, like a letter. The concerned executive puts on the follow-up instructions and the filing clerk prepares a follow-up slip to act as a reminder. The follow-up document slip is filed in a *follow-up file* along with the copy of the paper and the original document is filed. If the "tickler" system is in existence, a separate "tickler" file is to be made in the same way as the "follow-up" file. Where a particular document is very important, it would be better if copy of the same is made out before the document or letter is released for use. The filing clerk sends the needed document to the concerned officer on the specified date.

(*vi*) **Sorting in filing.** After doing coding, indexing and cross-referencing, the papers are filed in chronological order, the most recent one coming on top. This is an accepted practice because this would help the staff locate the document with great ease in case of future reference.

(*vii*) **Issue of files for reference.** Files needed for reference are issued or "charged out" on the requisition of a departmental head or an executive. The filing clerk prepares an "outguide" or "out marker" card which indicates the placement of a file. The "out marker" is put in the place of the letter or document removed from the file. This "out marker" card is removed and destroyed when the file comes back.

(*viii*) **Transfer files.** It is necessary to provide for additional filing space as the filing cabinets fill up with correspondence. This problem can be tackled in one of the two ways: either (*a*) more equipment can be bought, or (*b*) transfer files can be made out. Purchase of addi-

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tional cabinets may prove costly and space-consuming. Thus files or papers which may be needed for reference only from time to time may be removed and stored in a clean dust-proof manner. For this purpose iron or cardboard boxes can be used.

(*ix*) **Treatment of "dead" files.** Dead files are those which become obsolete and useless after some time. The organisation should clearly lay down the policy regarding dead files to avoid the destruction of valuable documents; and to have clearance of space for fresh files. The file intended to be destroyed is placed in a transfer folder before its final destruction. If an old document is of great importance, micro-filming might be done to preserve its record.

Deciding Policy about transfer and dead files. The two problems of transfer files and dead files are closely related to each other. It is essential to evolve a suitable policy for transfer and dead files. This policy must take care of the following two elements:

(*a*) *Length of time for keeping correspondence.* This will depend upon the length of probable activity and the Statute of Limitations.

(*b*) *Length of time during which this correspondence should be kept in active files.* This would depend upon its period of greatest activity.

DEVELOPING RECORDS RETENTION SCHEDULE

A retention schedule for records must be developed by every office, *i.e.*, for how long the records must be preserved and then destroyed. There is a need for a clear-cut policy in this regard due to the following factors:

(*i*) Unnecessary records interfere with lines of *communication and decision-making* at all levels. Too many records (which are not needed) make location of the needed records a problem. This means that a lot of executive and employee time is wasted in the process.

(*ii*) Unnecessary records also mean a greater *expenditure* on files and filing equipment.

(*iii*) More *office space* is needed to keep unnecessary records; and office space is very costly.

Factors Affecting Retention Schedule

The following factors should be considered in evolving the retention schedule:

(*i*) *Law of limitation* regarding debts.

(*ii*) *Legal needs. e.g.*, of income-tax, sales tax, customs, excise, lease and ownership of property, corporate records, agreements and

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contracts, etc.

(*iii*) *Personal needs*—employee records from the date of joining to the date of leaving or retiring.

(*iv*) *Misc. needs*—records of office machines, telephone, civic services, etc.

Steps in Retention Schedule

The following steps are suggested in developing a retention schedule:

(*i*) Analyse the *cost* of existing procedures to serve as basis for comparisons.

(*ii*) Now prepare a physical *inventory* of all types of records.

(*iii*) The next step is to seek *opinions* of the managers concerned, the company secretary, legal and taxation advisers and other specialists as to the period for which records must be kept.

(*iv*) The top management must *approve* the retention schedule.

(*v*) The retention schedule should now be *communicated* to ensure its implementation.

(*vi*) It would be necessary to have a *review* of this schedule from time to time for the purpose of making improvements.

ORGANISATION OF RECORDS ROOM

Our discussion on records management will remain incomplete unless we refer to the organisation of the records room which affects records management greatly. Following *steps* will be taken to organise the records room:

(*i*) **Location of record room.** Record room should be so located that it can be approached by every department with great ease. Central location is the best location. However, where there is a system of decentralised filing, there may be more than one records rooms depending upon the needs.

(*ii*) **Organisation of records management department or section.** If the organisation is large, a separate records management section or department will have to be created to man and supervise the records room. A suitable person should be selected to head this department or section. This person must be familiar with the line of business and its complexities and needs.

(*iii*) **Location and lay-out of files.** This is an important aspect of the organisation of a records room. The files must be located nearest the departments that will most frequently require the filed materials. If it is not so there will be plenty of wastage of time, which would

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lower the efficiency of the organisation.

(*vi*) **Proper protection.** The records room must be protected against hazards like fire. Fire extinguishers and other fire fighting equipment must be near at hand to meet any emergency caused by a possible fire. Besides, the records room should be dust-free so that the files are well protected.

QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by the term indexing? What is the purpose of index? Describe briefly (a) Book Index and (b) Vertical Index. (*I.C.W.A.*)
2. State the essential features of a good system of indexing. Also state how a good system of indexing benefits an organisation.
3. You are the Office Manager of a large export house, which receives atleast 200 letters daily from all parts of the world. Which system of indexing would you install and why?
4. "An efficient, simple and comprehersive system of filing and indexing of all correspondence and reports, etc. (both incoming and outgoing)is a necessity in modern organisation." Elucidate with routines to be followed (*I.C.W.A.*)
5. At present in a factory, records, both old and current, are kept by the individual section, occupying more space. One of the reasons for keeping records in the respective sections is that this facilitates easy reference. Make out a scheme for separate record room and state how it should be organised, bearing in mind ease of reference and location.Also outline a system of elimination of old and unnecessary records.
6. Write notes on: (*a*) Strip Index; and (*b*) Wheel Index.
7. Discuss critically visible card index.
8. What is vertical card index? How is it an improvement over other types of indexing? Discuss its uses, advantages and drawbacks.
9. What are 'signals'? What are their objects? Explain the different types of signalling
10. Discuss loose-leaf binders.
11. Outline a system of elimination of old and unnecessary records.
12. What is filing routine? Desctibe the differert steps involved in filing routine.
13. You are the records room superintendent of a Government department. You have been asked to suggest a proper records retention schedule. Prepare a comprehensive note stating the considerations for evolving the records retention schedule. Also outline the steps that you would take to develop a retention schedule.

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Chapter 13

OFFICE FURNITURE, EQUIPMENT AND MACHINES—I

OFFICE furniture, equipment[1] and machines are basic to the efficient functioning of office. While the human material can be described as the brain behind all office activity, adequate and proper furniture, equipment and machines are the tools through which office work is carried out. Office activity is an indoor activity. Therefore, it is necessary to provide such furniture, equipment and machines in the office which add to the efficiency and comfort of the office worker. Their proper and adequate provision reduces work tensions, monotony and fatigue. They lend speed and accuracy to work. In brief, the modern office is greatly dependent on them for its proper functioning. It is thus the duty of the office manager to provide for the right type of furniture, equipment and machines in the office. They must be viewed as a long-term investment since it is difficult to make quick replacements on account of the heavy cost of their replacement.

OFFICE FURNITURE

Office furniture is necessarily a part of the total environment in which the employee works. It can be described as a basic facility with which an employee identifies himself. Right kind of furniture must be provided so as to provide maximum comfort to the employee and reduce fatigue and health hazards to the minimum. In Europe and the USA much work has been done to design the right type of furniture which allows for the correct posture of the office worker while at work. The choice of office furniture is thus a very important task. The following factors must be considered while choosing office furniture:

1. **Funds.** The amount of funds available for the purpose would

[1]The meaning of the term equipment is most generic. It may mean a wide variety of equipment and accessories used in office—anything from a small file tray to a big filing cabinet.

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obviously affect the choice; but at the same time it would be essential to keep in mind to have the most suitable type of furniture.

2. Design. Design is related to the size of top, height, number of drawers, etc.

3. Durability. Durability is an important factor. Steel furniture, which is becoming quite popular in our offices, is more long-lasting than the wooden furniture. "Sunmica" surfaced furniture is very long-lasting.

4. Saving in space. Choice of furniture is greatly affected by this consideration. There should be maximum saving in space since rents in urban areas are very high.

5. Comfort. This is basic to efficient performance of work. Comfort adds to speed and better morale.

6. Appearance. Good appearance of furniture adds greatly to the look of the office. Thus furniture should not only be functional but it should also have a pleasing appearance.

7. Hygiene. The ease of cleaning furniture or space underneath is a problem to be considered at the time of its choice.

8. Weight. The furniture should be light enough to move around in the office where frequent changes are to be made in the placement of furniture.

9. Finish. Glossy surfaces should be avoided because they create glares and thus increase tensions.

10. Safety. The furniture should be safe to use. Plate glass topped furniture is relatively unsafe.

11. Saving in labour. Economy in working is an important function of office furniture. Certain furniture has built-in file units, which can save movement and walking about by the employees.

12. Fire risk. Fire risk of furniture should be the least. Metal furniture has a less fire risk than the wooden furniture.

13. Multipurpose or adaptable. As far as possible furniture should be adaptable to different uses in the office. Hence the need for standardisation of the office furniture.

Different Types of Furniture

Many types of furniture are needed in the office. Furniture in office can be classified on the basis of its physical appearance, like chairs and desks etc. It can also be classified on the basis of purpose, for example, executive furniture, special-purpose furniture, etc.

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DESKS

The desk is the workbench of the office employee influencing much of his efficiency. The main object of a desk is to provide a suitable space for writing and for processing information. The desk is also used for stationing a machine for use and to provide storage place for supplies needed by the person. For all these purposes, a suitable desk should be provided. An average desk should be of normal height, width and depth. Desk top measuring 120 cm to 150 cm wide by 75 cm in depth and 70 cm in height are the dimensions of an average desk. These dimensions provide sufficient space for work and a comfortable working position.

Provision of a proper working desk is important in more than one respect. Since it is the base of operations of a worker, he identifies himself psychologically with it. It is his *seat*. Its proper size, and design influence much of his efficiency. Its proper size is important from another point of view, *viz.*, the rent cost. Even in our country, office space is fantastically priced in the metropolitan cities of Bombay, Calcutta and Delhi, etc.

Types of Desks

On the basis of their use, desks can be classified as: (*i*) Executive desks; (*ii*) Clerical desks; (*iii*) Secretarial desks; (*iv*) Typist desks; (v) Machine desks; and (*vi*) Special desks.

(*i*) **Executive desks** are designed to suit individual tastes and quite often they are designed as a show-piece of an organisation. Their purpose is also to impress visitors with the prestige and importance of persons using them. Usually they are double pedestal desks with a width of 1.5 metres to 1.8 metres (or even more if needed), a depth of 83 cm to 1 metre and 75 cm in height. Some of the bigger ones contain a number of drawers, etc. on the side the executive is seated; and also on the opposite side in a number of cases. Sharp edges and corners are eliminated. There cannot be any standardised executive desk although for a majority of junior executives standardised desks are provided.

(*ii*) **Clerical desks** used in our country are mostly single pedestal desks with a maximum top of 1.2 metres by 75 cm, and 3-4 drawers on one side of the desk. In some offices double pedestal desks are provided for clerical workers.

(*iii*) **Secretrial desks** needed for the secretaries of executives can be single pedestal or double pedestal desks. In our country most of the secretarial desks are the same as the other clerical desks with

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little change. Secretaries may be often provided with separate typists tables to do typing work.

(*iv*) **Typist desks** are with a fixed bed for the typewriter and are not a common sight in our offices. In the offices of our country typist desks are usually smaller clerical desks with the height and drawers adjusted to suit the needs of the typists. In England, for example, for typists single pedestal desks are quite common. Such a desk measures 1.2 metres in width, 68 centimetres in depth, 70-75 centimetres in height with 2-3 drawers for trays for records, papers, stationery, etc. In the USA the L-shaped desks, a single pedestal unit with an extension on either side containing the second pedestal, is becoming increasingly popular, Then there are many other types of typist desks like the desks fitted with a drop or collapsible well for the typewriter; and the desks with a fold-away mechanism, in which the typewriter is put in a cupboard provided in the pedestal of the desk while the desk top is used for clerical work.

It would be worthwhile to note the results of a survey on typist desks conducted in the UK.[1] It has been found that 75 per cent of the typists preferred a desk height of 60 centimetres, 13 per cent were in favour of a height of 64 centimetres and the 11 per cent perferred a height of 56 centimetres.

(*v*) **Machine desks** are designed specially to meet the needs of different types of machines like the adding, calculating, billing machines, etc. A well is provided at either end of the desk for the machine so that it sits lower than the standard desk height.

(*iv*) **Special desks,** as the name implies, are designed to meet special needs of other office work, *e.g.*, desks to accommodate copying machines, and reproduction supplies, desks for card-punch operators, etc. These desks should be so designed that they are an aid to the performance of specific tasks.

TABLES

In many government and other offices, tables still serve as clerical desks and thus they may be fitted with one or two drawers. Tables are ordinarily needed for sorting of mail despatch, temporary housing of files and file trays, holding meetings of committees, etc. Most of the tables follow the conventional dimensions for their sizes; but there can be special purpose tables, *e.g.*, if sorting is to be done while standing, the height of the sorting table should be raised suitably.

[1]Denyer, *op. cit.*, p. 42.

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CHAIRS

Chairs are perhaps the most important item of furniture from the point of view of the worker since he sits in them all through the day in office. In the UK and other industrially advanced countries. In our own country most of the chairs have standardised height of 41 cm. (16½ inches).[1] A chair greatly influences his correct posture while at work and consequently influences his health. Chairs, therefore, must be built on scientific lines to avoid fatigue and ill-health, which are the direct result of badly designed chairs. Proper chairs increase work output and reduce absenteeism.

The ideal *height* of the clerical chairs is now considered to be 40 cm to 42 cm instead of the customary 45 cm to 48 cm from the ground. For a desk height of 68-70 cm, the ideal height of the chair is 40 cm from the seat level to the ground. A better thing would be if chair adjustable in height. The *back* of the chair should be such which gives support to the back and sufficient relaxation. It would be better if the back is *adjustable* both in incline as well as height. The seat should be sufficiently large, properly designed and thinly padded. A *revolving chair* may be ideal in most cases since if allows for movement without getting onto ground and it also allows for saving of space, especially where filing or other work is to be done along with the usual clerical work of writing.

Then there are *special purpose chairs* for typists and machine operators and chairs for other special purposes. In all such cases the machine, the operations and other factors would determine the height,

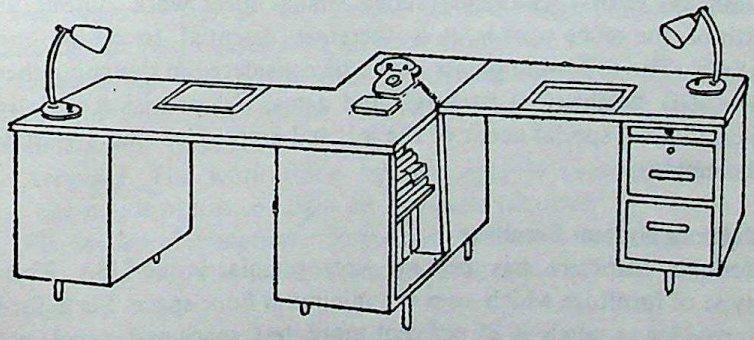

FIG. 13.1. Example of system furniture for executive and secretary.

[1]Krish Pennathur, How comfortable is your chair? *Science Today*, Jan. '80 (Vol. 14. No. 1).

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seat and back-rest, *e.g.*, in the case of a sorter's chair, it would be ideal to fit it with *castors* so that movements back and forth are with great ease. Similarly the chair of the telephone operator should be provided with certain amount of swivel for movements because job on the board involves constant movements in various directions.

Designing Desks and Chairs[1]

So far not much attention has been paid in designing desks and chairs for office workers because no definite anthropometric data[2] is available about the Indian worker. Brig. Krish Pennathur has collected such data with regard to industrial workers in UP during the recent years. But such data cannot be, very useful for the rest of the country since this data varies from state to state and even from district to district within the same state. The available data for the country is nearly 18 years old and in the meanwhile the body variables of the average Indian must have undergone a change. This data shows that the figures from the Punjab are the highest, while those from West Bengal and South Kerala are the lowest.

Designing desks. It would be ideal to have desks designed on special orders,if possible, to suit the special needs of the jobs and the persons using them. The following points are to be considered in designing desks: (*i*) size, (*ii*) height, (*iii*) depth, (*iv*) storage space, (*v*) special needs of the job and employee, (*vi*) the status of the employee, and (*vii*) incline.

Designing chairs. As already stated chairs affect work output and health of the office worker, it is therefore essential to design them carefully. The following points are to be considered in designing them: (*i*) size, (*ii*) height, (*iii*) back-rest and arms, (*iv*) provision of swivel and castors, (*v*) special needs of the job and employee, and (*vi*) status of the employee.

Modular or System Furniture

Modular furniture has become very popular in the USA. This is the type of furniture which uses the minimum floor space. Such furniture provides as much as 25 per cent more desk space and saves upto 33 per cent of the floor area. Such furniture has the greatest advantage of less cost per square foot of working area. However, it has one great limitation, *viz.*, it may encourage talking among the clerks where many work units are combined. But this problem can be

[1]Krish Pennathur, *ibid, op. cit.*

[2]Data regarding the measurement of body.

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solved to some extent by providing screens.

Wooden furniture

In our country wooden furniture made of teak and rose wood, is by far the most popular kind of furniture. Wooden furniure has the following advantages over the metallic (mainly steel) furniture: (*i*) It can be shaped and designed as per needs. (*ii*) With its properly polished surfaces and its dense look, it is more cosy and creates a feeling of greater comfort. (*iii*) It can be repolished cheaply at little cost.

On the other hand the metallic furniture is ideal from these points of view: (*i*) It is safe against fire (*ii*) A large variety of it, especially chairs, is light and can be easily moved in case of need.

So far as cost is concerned, there is little to choose, at least in our country. Thus the choice between these two types of furniture would depend mainly on factors like individual needs and the comparative weight.

OFFICE MACHINES

Objects of Mechanisation

Mechanisation in the office refers to a process whereby office machines and equipment are introduced in the office with a view to aid administrative processes. Mechanisation in the office has the following objects:

1. Labour saving. Mechanisation aims at saving labour in one of the two ways: *either* it may reduce the total wage bill *or* the same number of employees carries on a larger volume of work.

2. Time saving. Saving in time is another objective of mechanisation. The work that would take hours can be done in *no time* with machines.

3. Accuracy. The work done by machines is more accurate and hence one major objective might be to ensure accuracy.

4. Elimination of monotony. Repetitive processes are monotonous and office machines aim to eliminate the monotony of these repetitive processes.

5. Standardisation. Standardisation of work procedures is desirable which can be best achieved with the help of machines.

6. Lesser frauds. Machines also minimise the chances of fraud in office work.

7. Storage of facts and data. Machines, like computers, store facts and data for future reference.

8. Interpreting facts and data. Machines, like computers interpret

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facts and data for decision-making and control.

Need for Machines in Modern Office

Modern business operations have become complex due to revolution in technology of manufactures. Mechanisation of factory processes has posed the following problems:

(*i*) **Scale of production.** Large-scale production presents the problem of record-keeping at different levels. For example, records of work, wages, stocks of raw materials, stocks of finished products, machines and their depreciation, etc., are to be kept efficiently.

(*ii*) **Size of markets.** Large-scale production leads to ever-widening markets. Thus it would be essential to keep marketing records properly. For example, records concerning list of outlets, salesmen and their performance, sales performance of a particular item and market surveys, etc. must be kept in a manner that the task of marketing management becomes easy.

(*iii*) **Competition.** Competition is an essential feature of modern business world. This means every part of the organisation accepts the challenge of change and competition. Machines in the office help to meet the challenge of competition much more efficiently.

(*iv*) **Laws.** Changing government laws also pose a great challenge to the managers in business.

The net effect of all the above factors is that use of machines has become an important part of the functioning of a modern business organisation. Littlefield and others[1] also point to another aspect of the problem. They state: "The reasons for accelerated mechanisation in administrative processes are apparent. The relatively slow beginning left a long way to go, and at least part of the movement must be regarded as a catching up process." In our country mechanisation is catching up in some spheres of business. Manual operations are handed over to machines in the offices. There has been a great proliferation of machines of different kinds in our offices. To name a few, electrically operated adding and calculating machines, sophisticated copiers, and addressographs are being increasingly used in the offices. Most of these machines are being manufactured in our country. In fact, some of them are even exported to other countries.

Establishing the Need for Office Machines and Equipment

Before office machines are selected it is necessary to find out whether they are really needed or not in the office. The decision to buy

[1]Littlefield and others, *op. cit.*

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machines for administrative procedures is to be made by the management at the higher level in the organisation in which the administrative office manager shall also be associated. Although many types of machines are available in the market, yet all of them may not be needed by the office. Need for a particular machine or equipment can be determined with reference to the following factors:

(*i*) **Available alternative.** Can the work be done by simple non-mechanical means and done efficiently? If it is so, mechanisation is not required.

(*ii*) **Peak load.** If a machine is to be bought only to meet peak load requirements, it may not to desirable to buy such a machine.

(*iii*) **Simplification of work procedures.** There may be a superficial need for a machine because the work procedures may be unnecessary or long and complicated. Once these procedures are eliminated or simplified and shortened, the need for a particular machine may disappear altogether.

Principles of Office Machines and Equipment Selection

Once the need for a machine for a particular operation (or a set of operations) has been determined, the next task is of selection of the right type of machine for the purpose. Since many machines and equipment are available with similar uses, it would be desirable to be careful in the selection of the most suitable type of machine. Improper selection of machines may prove to be costly and troublesome. It would be worthwhile to keep the following principles in view while selecting office machines and equipment:

1. Principle of cost. The machine and equipment concerned should have the least cost in the circumstances. The cost of a machine has two aspects: (*i*) the *initial cost*, and (*ii*) the *operating cost*. If the capital cost of a machine is higher but its operating costs are low, it may be preferred to a machine with a smaller initial outlay but with higher operating costs. But quality should not be sacrificed for cost.

2. Principle of quality. Machines and equipment must be of good quality so that the quality of work performed by them is of desired standard.

3. Principle of maximum benefit. It is necessary that the office machines must give the maximum benefit keeping in view the cost.

4. Principle of suitability. It is necessary that the office machines should be suitable for the processes for which they are to be bought. They should not be bought as mere status symbol.

5 Principle of adaptability and multiple use. The equipment should

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be adaptable to various processes in the office. In other words, it would be better to instal machines with multiple uses so that idle time is reduced to the minimum and machines are put to maximum use. Indirectly it means that machines should be light in weight so that are easily moved from one work place to another.

6. Principle of standardisation. Equipment and machines of the same type should be bought. Standardisation results in the following benefits to the organisation: (*i*) Lower prices due to larger purchases. (*ii*) Lower maintenance costs due to servicing of fewer makes of machines. (*iii*) Own service department can be developed easily and economically. (*iv*) Operators can be trained more simply and easily. (*v*) Economy results in because one group of employees can operate any of the machines. (*vi*) It is easy to purchase and use office forms to fit a very few makes of machines. (*vii*) Computation of depreciation of machines would be easy. (*viii*) It would assist management in measuring the work output of different personnel in the office.

7. Principle of fullest use. The machines must be put to the greatest use. In fact at the time of purchase, the quantum of use in relation to cost must be determined. A machine which is to be used rarely will not justify its purchase.

8. Principle of durability. A machine must be durable. It may not only have a long life but it should be also free from frequent breakdowns.

9. Principle of adequacy. The machines must be bought in adequate numbers so that each department has the desired number of machines. Constant shifting of a machine from one department to another would pose many problems.

10. Principle of least space occupancy. It is essential that the machines should occupy the least floor, desk and shelf spaces. Large and heavy machines often occupy costly space and thus add to indirect costs of the organisation.

Advantages of Mechanisation

Mechanisation has become an important part of modern office administrative process because it offers many advantages, chief of which are as follows:

1. Better quality of work. Machines help improve the quality of work done in the office. Not only the work will be neat but it will also be more systematic.

2. Lower operating costs. Operating costs per hour of work decline with the use of machines. Of course, there is no doubt that they require a large amount of initial capital investment. However in the

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long-run, they prove beneficial.

3. Greater efficiency. Machines bring speed and efficiency to all types of office work. The work that may take hours to finish may be finished in no time with their help. Improved efficiency leads to greater profitability and at the same time creates a good image in the minds of the people who deal with the organisation.

4. Better accuracy. Machines enure better accuracy. Chances of errors are almost eliminated. Thus the work goes on smoothly and bottlenecks and delays are eliminated which may prove very costly.

5. Facility in control. Machines facilitate the task of managers. They help them to exercise better degree of control over their subordinates. Time recording machines ensure presence of workers, certain machines allow for minimisation of frauds in the accounting department.

6. Facilitates standardisation of office routines. Mechanisation helps to facilitate standardisation of office routines and procedures. Standardisation of office routines facilitates better coordination of work.

7. Relieves monotony. Mechanisation reduces the monotony of carrying out repetitive processes which are boring and time-consuming. The office worker is thus relieved of mental tensions of going through the same process again and again.

Disadvantages of Mechanisation

Although the use of mechanical devices offers many advantages, yet it suffers from a number of drawbacks. They are summarised as follows:

1. High cost of installation. Most of the modern office machines, for example computers, cost a lot of money to instal. Thus smaller firms cannot take advantage of many machines.

2. High cost of operating. Costs of operating certain types of machines and equipment are also high.

3. High cost of breakdowns. Breakdowns prove very costly. They cost quite a bit in money and real terms. Whenever a breakdown occurs, the work gets held up. Thus the work may get dislocated.

4. Problem of monotony. Use of office machines creates the problem of monotony as it is in the case of the production department. The workers are replaced by machines and monotony becomes an important problem of the office. The machines may thus restrict initiative and creativeness.

5. Problem of training office workers. Office workers are to be

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trained to work on the office machines. Where sophisticated machines are involved, the training may be long and costly which may not be justified by the use to which such machines may be put.

6. Hostility of office workers. Workers are hostile to the introduction of certain types of machines like computers. This has been a very common experience in our country. Thus the industrial peace may be disturbed to the detriment of the organisation.

7. Under-utilisation of machines. Many costly machines are not used everyday but they are used only occasionally, say on one or two days in the week. Similarly some machines may be used more continuously during the busy season. However, it is not essential that a machine must be used continuously to make it a worthwhile investment. Some costly machines, like a motor car in a home, may be used infrequently, yet they are a good investment.

8. Lesser flexibility of office systems. Machines make it necessary to mechanise the office systems and thus the system may become less flexible. For example, mechanisation of accounting system may give rise to a number of queries which were absent before mechanisation was introduced. Besides, where office work needs great skill and decisions on many things out of the routine are to be taken, then human labour proves better than a machine.

9. Risk of obsolescene. .Many machines have a high degree of obsolescence, and the machine and its method may become out of date before it is paid for. In order to avoid this risk, such machines should be bought which have as universal application as possible.

10. Surplus staff. Many machines require trained operators and the absence of one of them results in accumulation of work. To avoid this situation, two operators may be trained so that the absence of one operation may not dislocate work. Thus two workers may be employed although only one of them is needed.

11. Dominance of machine. Denyer points out: "Unless great care is taken, the machine will become more important than the work it produces." Thus human being may get subordinated to a machine. This leads to man's (the resource-creator) own creation having a more dominant role in the scheme of the organisation.

Machines versus Man

We have seen that the drawbacks of mechanisation are many and in many situations machines may overwhelm man, the machine-creator. In no case the machines should be allowed to dominate. They are to be used as a tool of administrative proceses so as to achieve the goals set forth by the organisation. They should aid management

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in serving owners, employees, customers and other public better. They should improve upon the efficiency of the organisation and cut down costs. In nutshell mechanisation in office should aim at smoother and more efficient functioning of the organisation without turning human beings into mere useless parts of the organisation since the aim of any organisation can be promotion of human effort.

Different Types of Office Machines

There are many types of machines available to a modern office. There is the small manual conventional typewriter, which may be seen in any office to-day, and then there might be sophisticated computer. Between these two extremes, there are a number of machines. These various machines are classified as follows:

1. Typewriters.
2. Duplicating machines.
3. Photocopying machine.
4. Dictating machines.
5. Accounting and tabulating machines.
6. Punched card machines.
7. Addressing and mailing machines.
8. Electronic computers.
9. Other miscellaneous machines.

Some of the important machines are discussed here.

TYPEWRITER

The typewriter needs little introduction. It is the commonest of all the machines used in the office. The first practical typewriter was used more than a century ago (1873) and since then it has undergone constant improvements. As an office machine, it has two commendable *features: firstly*, it ensures neatness of messages, letters, invoices, etc. to be sent; and *secondly*, a small number of copies (from 1 to 6 or so) can also be obtained simultaneously with the help of the carbon papers.

Types of Typewriters

Typewriters come in different sizes and shapes. They also differ from each other on the basis of their technological sophistication. For example, there can be manual typewriters and then there are electric typewriters. Typewriters are of the following types:

1. Portable typewriters. They are light-weight protable typewriters which are in common use by individuals. In our country the first

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such typewriter was marketed by the J.K. Group followed by others.

2. Standard-sized typewriters. They are in common use in offices. In our country, the first such typewriters were assembled and marketed by the Remingtons, who still remain the leaders in our country. Besides, now Godrej typewriter, which is also of good quality, is available in the market.

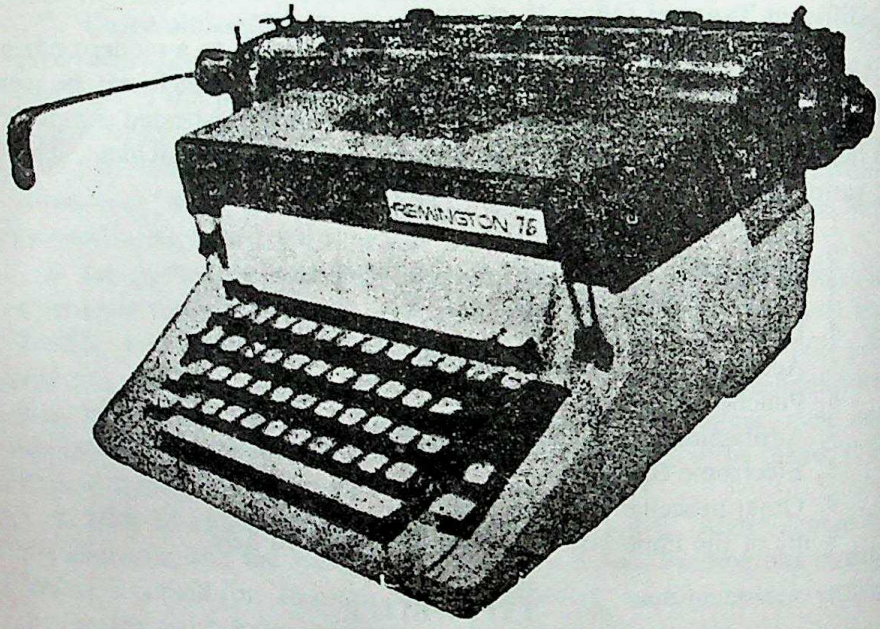

FIG. 13.2. Illustration of a Typewriter of Modern Design.

3. Typewriters in different languages. Our country is vast and varied

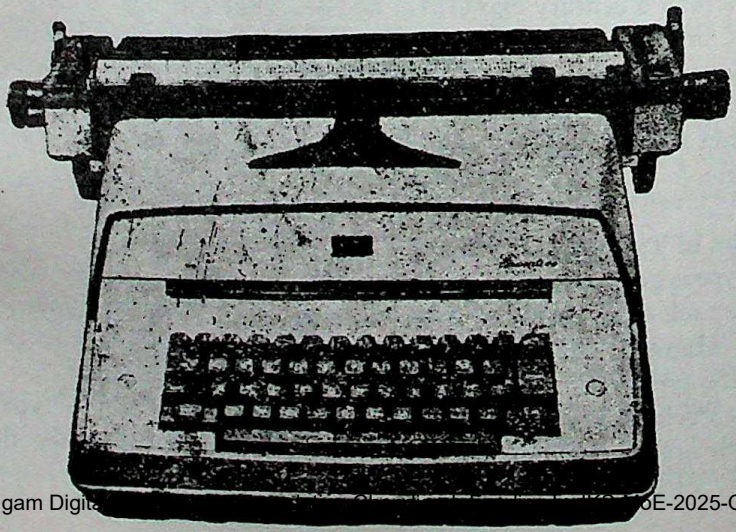

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FIG. 13.3. Electric typewriter.

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with a number of languages. Today typewriters are available which have not only the Roman characters but also Devnagri and characters of other alphabets. Hindi typewriting is quite common in North. India and Central India where Hindi is widely spoken and written.

4. Electric typewriters. Different studies show that a busy typist hits 46,000 letters a day and his fingers travel 12 to 20 miles a day. To ease human effort, electric typewriter has been evolved. An electric motor takes away the work of human beings. Although the work is still to be done with the help of hands and fingers, yet the physical effort involved in the process is reduced considerably. Electric typewriters are not common in our country. It is the manual typewriter which still dominates our offices. They have other advantages over the manual typewriters, such as: (*i*) the speed of work increases; (*ii*) there is a greater perfection in work (even a softer touch of a finger types a character perfectly), and (*iii*) the number of copies can be as large as 20 as against the 6 copies which can be obtained from a manual typewriter.

Variable type machines. They are typewriters which type letters with types of different sizes and styles to meet the varied needs of business, especially, those concerning sales literature, office reports, statistical work and display work. This machine differs from the usual standard typewriting machine. Instead of having type-bars, the variable typewriter works with circular printing segments which are interchangeable. These different segments for different styles or sizes are quickly dropped into the front of the machine when required. When a key is depressed, the printing segment is turned to the required position and the paper is struck against it to get the impression. The variable type machines has a standard key board and can be fitted with the special ribbon for use with off-set lithomasters, for which it is well suited. The machine also allows for different spacing by fitting the "spacing adjustment" device. Such type machines are not manufactured in our country and thus they are not in common use.

Automatic typewriters. An automatic typewriter types a standard proforma from a previously stencilled or punched master. This typewriter works on the same principle as the player piano. The matter to be typed is first punched on a papertape or paper roll or a special stencil is "cut" to serve as a "master plate" or record. The "master" is then placed on the automatic typewriter which "plays back" or types out the matter at a very high speed (about 160 to 180 letters can be produced in a single working day). When non-standard matters like names, addresses, special codes, special terms, etc., are to be inserted, the

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automatic device is switched off to insert this matter.

An automatic typewriter can also be of the *seletive type* in which 100 or more different standard paragraphs can be cut on stencils or punched on master rolls. Any combination of these paragraphs can be obtained at will by pressing the appropriate buttons and setting the machine in motion. An automatic typewriter has found wide-spread use in the West. It saves on labour costs, the work of 3 to 4 typists is done on a single typewriter by a single typist. It *saves on time* as well. Standard matter is typed out quickly and reframing of the matter is not needed. At the same time, the standard letters to different people appear individualistic and give a personal touch to each subject to be dealt with. The automatic typewriter is thus of great use in sales work, share department, sending of greetings on different occasions, issue of credit letters and accounts collection. Automatic typewriter is not used in our country. However, considering the pace of office work, it may find occasional use in some distant future.

6. Typewriters with additional features, devices and attachments. Manufacturers of typewriters in the USA, Europe and Japan have come out with a variety of typewriters doing special-purpose jobs. To begin with, a *large roller* can be fitted to a typewriter to enable work on a broad-sized paper. Also the *front feed device* allows papers to be inserted from the front and has proved useful in typing invoices, receipts and cheques, etc. The *"card-holding attachment"* allows small stiff labels or cards to be put into the machine and curved round the roller and typed with great ease. Then there is the *carbon-ribbon equipment*. A typewriter fitted with this equipment makes copies without the use of carbon papers. The standard typewriter is fitted with a carbon ribbon spool along with the typing ribbon spool. The carbon ribbon spool is inserted between the two sheets of paper to obtain the carbon copy. There is also the *continuous stationery* attachment, and when fitted to a standard typewriter, types out rolls of continuous stationery.

7. Special purpose typewriters. There are special purpose typewriters which are used for typing mathematical and scientific formulae and also for typing special type of literature. The *Dual Tabulator* is used for typing tables, formats, etc. The *Hectograph Carbon Roll Typewriter* is a special-purpose typewriter which types master sheets for hectographic duplicating machines. The *Dual Unit Typewriter* types scientific and mathematical formulae.

8. Stenotyping machine. It is also described as a *shorthand machine*. It is a typewriter on which dictation can be taken down phonetically on a moving paper tape. The typist then transcribes the

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tape on an ordinary typewriter. This machine has alphabetical keys whose arrangement differs from the keys on a typewriter. When a word is spoken the stenotypist presses the keys down for a word (or syllable of a word). This work of depressing the keys is done simultaneously and the appropriate words and sentences get printed on the moving paper tape. The stenotypist himself or some other trained typist can then transcribe the matter. The machine, being portable, is extremely handy. It is also noiseless.

Advantages. The stenotyping machine has certain unique advantages, chief of which are: (*i*) *Speed.* Dictation can be taken at a very high speed which results in greater turnover per stenotypist. (*ii*) *Eliminates fatigue.* The machine also eliminates much of the physical fatigue which is associated with manual short-hand writing. (*iii*) *Suitability.* Since the machine uses the phonetic system (*Palan type* script), it can be conveniently used to take dictation in any language (English, French, German etc.) (*iv*) *Simultaneous typing.* Lengthy matters can be typed out simultaneously because parts of the stenotyped paper tape can be passed on to the typist simultaneously when the dictation is in progress. (*v*) *Noiseless.* Being noiseless, the machine does not cause any kind of disturbance to co-workers in the office.

DUPLICATING MACHINES

Copies of different letters, documents and papers are to be obtained for record, information and contact. Only a limited number of copies can be obtained with the help of the typewriter. On the other hand, an unlimited number of copies can be obtained from a printing press. The printing press copying involves greater time and money. This process may be useful where an unlimited number of copies of circulars are to be mailed out. Where, therefore, the number of copies needed is not large enough to justify printing, duplicating machines (available in large varieties) can be used.

Essentials of Copying and Duplicating Services in the Office

It is necessary to choose the right type of copying and duplicating equipment and machines. In doing so, the following factors must be considered:

1. Evaluating needs: size and nature of organisation. Needs of the organisation must be evaluated and determined before a decision is made as to the type of equipment to be bought. In some small organisations where public dealings are few, typewriter may provide enough copies. However, ordinarily in a large organisation the type-

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writer may not prove adequate and hence some other means must be adopted to cope with the needs. A very large organisation may go in for the electrically operated duplicating machine.

2. Installation costs. Installation costs must be considered before a decision is made to buy a duplicating machine. It is necessary to carry out a cost-benefit analysis of the machine. Small needs and large fixed costs cannot go together. It would be desirable to see the demonstration of various types of duplicating machines and then make the purchase decision.

3. Operating costs. Operating costs of the different available machines and equipment must be found out. Other things being equal, lower operating costs surely act to the advantage of the organisation. Operating costs are to be considered in terms of power needed to run a particular duplicating machine, training costs of the office workers to run the machine and costs incurred in employing an extra hand or two to run the machine.

4. Problem of space-planning. The machine should occupy the minimum floor space and should also allow for easy adjustment in case space-use is replanned.

5. Noiseless. The duplicating machine should produce the minimum of noise. A noisy machine is bound to disturb other workers in the office. Since duplicating is usually a centralised service, it may be ideal to locate it in a small separate room close to the office stores so that necessary supplies are obtained quickly.

Various Types of Duplicating Machines

There are now a variety of duplicating machines available in our country. Various duplicating machines and their processes are as follows:

1. Gelatine duplicator. This is one of the oldest duplicators. Such a duplicator consists of a tray containing gelatine on to which the 'master" (prepared with a special aniline dye) is pressed, the copying paper is then pressed on the gelatine with a dampened roller to obtain the copy. Gelatine duplicator, though cheap, is cumbersome and the number of copies which can be obtained cannot be many.

2. Spirit duplicator or hectograph. This can be described as the modern development of the gelatine process stated above.

The spirit duplicators have become very popular in the West and the USA in recent years due to the following reasons:

(*i*) *Ease in preparing master copy.* Preparation of the master copy is very easy. The master copy is prepared by writing or typing on a sheet of art paper which is backed with a special hectographic carbon,

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so that a reverse image is obtained on the back of the master copy.

(*ii*) *Economy*. The master paper and the hectographic carbon are cheap.

(*iii*) *Versatility*. Spirit duplicating can be termed as versatile. Graphs, diagrams and illustrations can be reproduced with great ease. Besides, up to seven colours can be reproduced simultaneously on the copies. This is done by using the same "master" but by putting a different coloured carbon paper according to requirements.

(*iv*) *Reproduction flexibility*. It is possible to reproduce the same information, or even parts of it, on forms of different sizes. Thus reproduction of invoices, delivery notes and other documents can be done with great ease.

(*v*) *Storage of "masters"*. The "masters" can be stored for future reproduction.

(*vi*) *Use of glossy paper*. Smooth glossy paper can be used for reproduction which makes the copies look better.

In spite of the above advantages, spirit duplicators have their limitations, more important of which have been summed up as under:

(*i*) *Limited number of copies*. Only about 100 or so copies can be obtained through spirit duplicators, while, for example, stencil duplicators give up to about 1,000 copies.

(*ii*) *Fading of ink*. The ink on the copies fades with time. This, therefore, makes the copies useless where they are stored for a long time.

(*iii*) *Weaker image*. The image becomes progressively weaker as the copies are "rolled off".

(*iv*) *Transfer of carbon*. Much of the carbon gets transferred to the hands of the operator. This causes great inconvenience.

Working of the spirit duplicators. Most of the spirit duplicators are of the *rotary type*.

Spirit duplicators can be hand-operated or motor-operated depending on the needs of the organisation. In the case of rotary type of spirit duplicator, duplication involves the following *steps*.

(*i*) *Preparation of the "master"*. First step is to prepare the master copy. The desired matter is typed or written on a sheet of art paper which is backed with a special hectorgraphic carbon, so that a reverse image is obtained on the back of the master copy.

(*ii*) *Fitting of the master*. The master is than fitted round a drum on the machine, so that the carbon image is on the outside.

(*iii*) *Printing*. To get the copy, the copy paper is dampened with spirit which is fed from a reservoir on the machine itself. The drum is then rotated which presses against the master copy. The image is

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thus transferred from the master copy to the copy paper. The small amount of spirit on the copy paper dries up in a matter of few seconds.

A recent development in spirit duplicators is the *selective machine*. This duplicator has found a number of uses, especially, in systems of production control and shipping documentation. With this type of machine, it is possible to prepare a comprehensive master copy and also to select different lines at will for different documents.

3. Stencil duplicators. The first stencil duplicator was invented in 1881 which was a flat-bed machine. In 1889, the rotary stencil duplicator was made and from then onwards, stencil duplicator has undergone tremendous changes. Today's stencil duplicator (also known as the mimeograph) can be hand-operated or motor-operated. Many types of stencil duplicators manufactured by a number of manufacturers are available in our country. "Gestetner", "Roneo" and "Shourie" duplicators are the examples of stencil duplicators.

Advantages of stencil duplicators. Stencil duplicators offer many advantages, chief of which are as follows:

(*i*) *Large number of copies.* Stencil duplicators give a large number of copies. As many as 5,000 copies can be obtained in some cases. However, in general atleast 1,000 good copies can be obtained with ease.

(*ii*) *Ease in preparing the "master".* It is easy to prepare the master. "Stencil papers" of all varieties are available in the market. The master can be "cut" with the typewriter or with a hand stylus. Corrections can also be made with great ease. Correcting fluid is available in the market. The unwanted words can be substituted or removed by applying this fluid.

(*iii*) *Economy.* The stencil paper and the duplicating paper are cheap and are available from a variety of sources including the manufacturers of these duplicating machines.

(*iv*) *Variety of machines.* Many sizes and models of stencil duplicators are available in the market. Thus each office can buy the stencil duplicator which suits its pocket and needs.

(*v*) *Storage of "masters".* The masters can be easily stored for future use and re-use. It would be only proper to wrap them properly so that they can be used when the need arises.

(*vi*) *Preparation of graphs and diagrams.* Graphs and diagrams can be prepared with great ease with the help of the stylus pen.

(*vii*) *Automation.* Modern stencil duplicators are highly automatic. The ink feed for duplicating is automatic, paper feeding is automatic and even the machine is automatically controlled, *i.e.*, when the

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machine is set for a predetermined number of copies it can be switched on and it will switch itself off when that number is reached.

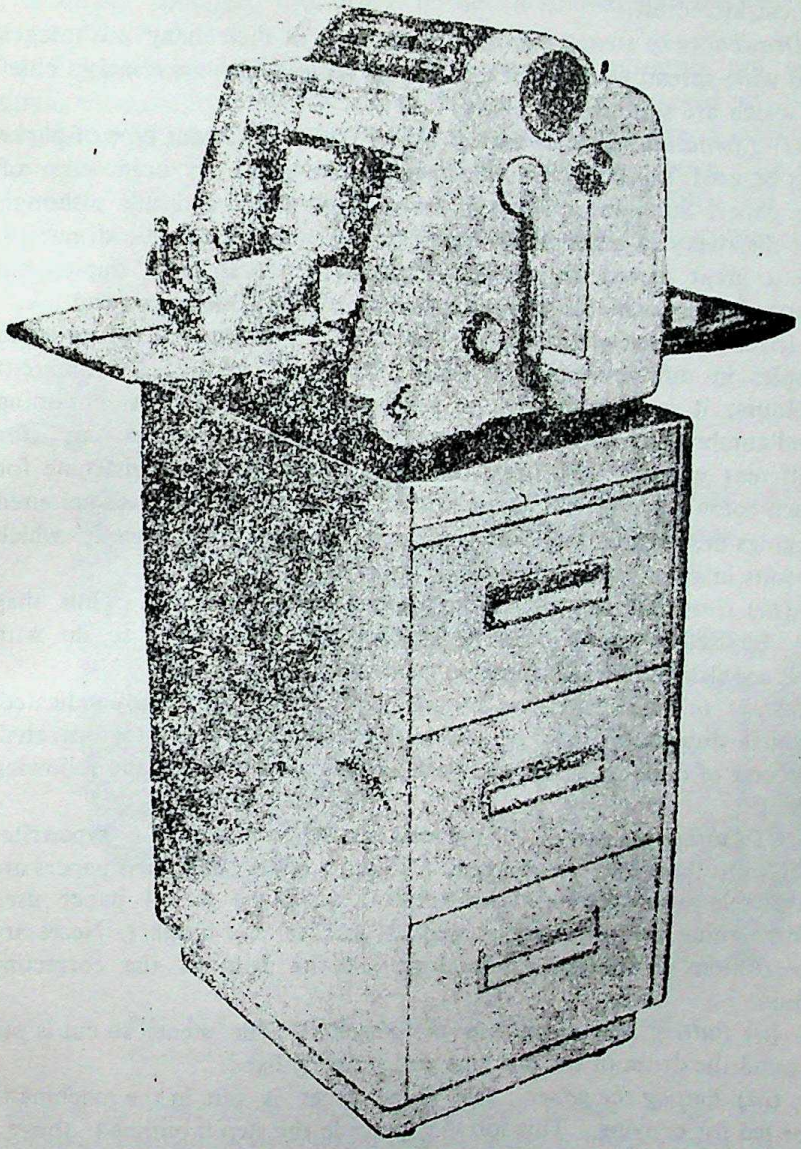

FIG. 13.4. A Stencil Duplicator (Electrically Operated)
(*Courtesy*: Gestetner).

(*viii*) *Speed.* Modern stencil duplicator ensures great speed. As many as 50 to 100 copies per minute can be obtained on an automatic

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machine while the manually operated machine can also give as many as 70 copies. Thus once the master is cut, the speed of duplicating is almost incredible.

Drawbacks of stencil duplicators. In spite of their many advantages and wide-spread use, stencil duplicators have some drawbacks, chief of which are summed up below:

(*i*) *Limitation of the use of paper.* Only absorbent type of paper can be used, especially if duplicating is to be done on both sides of the paper. Such paper is not fit for writing in pen and ink although the discovery of modern ball-point pen has eliminated this drawback to a great extent. In the USA and Europe "hardsized" duplicating paper is also available on which writing can be done in pen and ink.

(*ii*) *Limitation of the use of colours.* It is not possible to produce copies in different colours easily. If copies are needed in different colours, it is essential to go through the following time-consuming and cumbersome process: (*a*) Separate stencils are to be "cut" for different colours; (*b*) Copy paper is put through the machine for each colour; and (*c*) Different drums are to be used for each coloured inkings or, in other words, drums are to be changed frequently which results in great inconvenience.

(*iii*) *Cost.* Modern stencil duplicators are fairly costly. Thus they can be used in a large office. A smaller office may have to do with less sophisticated hand-operated machines.

Steps in duplication on stencil duplicators. As already indicated, stencil duplicators can be either hand-operated or motor-operated. Process of duplication on the stencil duplicators involves the following steps:

(*i*) *Cutting the stencil.* The stencil can be cut either on a typewriter or with the hand stylus pen. Different types of stencil papers are available to suit the individual needs. Usually the stencil paper used for writing with the stylus pen is thicker and tougher. Necessary corrections or deletions can be done with the help of the correcting fluid.

(*ii*) *Putting the stencil on the machine.* The stencil so cut is put round the drum of the machine and properly fixed.

(*iii*) *Putting the paper.* The copy paper is put in the machine to be fed for copying. This job may precede the step *ii* outlined above.

(*iv*) *Setting the number.* Many of today's machines are fitted with automatic counting device. The device is set for the number of copies needed. As soon as this number is reached the machine stops automatically.

(*v*) *Printing.* After taking the above steps, the machine would be

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operated now. If it is electrically operated, the motor would be switched on (and switched off on completion of the work). Where it is manually operated, the drum would be rotated with the help of the handle attached to it.

4. Electronic stencil duplicators. Such stencil duplicators are becoming increasingly important. Such duplicators are marketed in our country under the "Gestetner" brand name. They are a marked improvement over the stencil duplicators discussed above. They, therefore, enjoy the advantages of the stencil duplicators and in addition to these advantages, they can be described as versatile. In

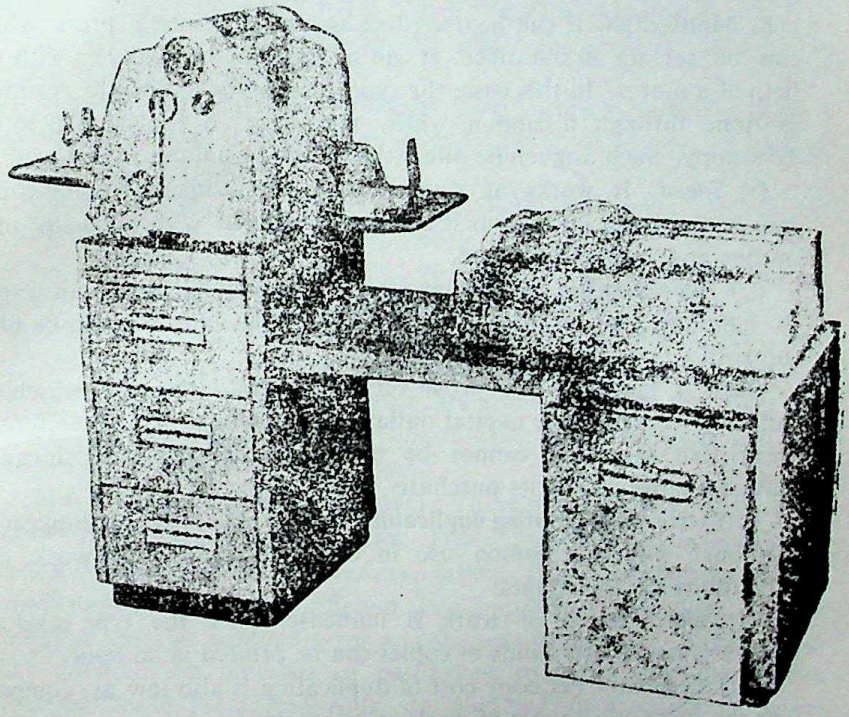

FIG. 13.5. Electronic Stencil Scanner and Duplicator
(*Courtesy:* Gestetner)

the case of these duplicators, photographic copies of any type of document, illustration or diagram whether hand-written, type-written, cyclostyled or printed can be obtained with an electronically produced stencil. The original document or paper is reproduced in thousands and the stencil takes only a few minutes to prepare.

The original document, which is to be reproduced, is put round a roller and it is *electronically scanned.* At the same time the contents

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of the document are reproduced accurately and minutely[1] on a stencil on another cylinder in the machine. As soon as the stencil is electronically "cut", copies can be reproduced on the stencil duplicator.

Such machines are yet to become popular in the offices of our country due to their large initial capital cost (which is as high as about Rs 50,000). However in a large office where work-load is heavy and reproduction needs are far too many, such a machine can be of great advantages. Its great advantages are the speed, the accuracy in reproduction, and its versatility.

5. Multigraph. It can be described as a small printing press which can be set up in the office. It can be operated manually or with the help of a motor. In this case, the type is set by hand and the printing is done through a ribbon which reproduces a copy similar to the type copy. Such a machine offers the following unique advantages:

(*i*) *Speed.* It works at a great speed and as many as 3,000 copies can be produced in an hour if the machine is run with the help of a motor and automatically fed.

(*ii*) *Individualistic.* Each copy can look individualistic if an expert is handling the machine. The address of the addressee can be filled up with a typewriter using similar type.

Such a machine can prove very useful in a large office which can afford to incur a large capital outlay. The machine has, therefore, a restrictive use as it cannot be used in a small office, which cannot invest a large sum in its purchase.

6. Letter press printing duplicators. Letter press printing duplicators, although not in common use in our country for office work, offer the following advantages:

(*i*) *Speed.* Speed of work is immense. Once the type is set or a block is made, thousands of copies can be printed in an hour.

(*ii*) *Economy.* Per copy cost of duplicating is also low as compared to the most other types of duplicating machines.

(*iii*) *Neatness.* Printing with letter press results in neat and clean copies.

(*iv*) *Use of different colours.* Different colours can be used, which enhance the look and usefulness of the copy.

Letter press printing machines have their drawbacks, which are summarised below:

(*i*) *Costly.* Letter press printing machines are costly as compared

[1]There are 500 perforation to an inch which produce an extremely accurate impression.

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to other types of machines, particularly the stencil duplicators. The breakdown may also prove costly.

(*ii*) *Needs more space.* Floor area needed for a letter press printing machine is also more as compared to most other duplicating machines, especially, the versatile stencil duplicators.

(*iii*) *Additional staff cost.* Letterpress machine also needs separate staff for its operation and duplicating services. Such additional specialised staff may not be needed by many other types of duplicators.

Considering its drawbacks, it may be stated that letterpress duplicating machines are fit for a very large organisation whose needs are large and can also afford the capital and running costs of such machines.

Working of a letter press machine. Such machine is worked with a motor or manually. The copies are obtained by following the undernoted process.

(*i*) *Setting type.* The type is set. The printing type may be of the typewriter face or some other variety.

(*ii*) *Fixing type block.* The type so set is fixed on to the machine.

(*iii*) *Operating the machine.* The paper is fed into machine which is now set into motion. There are also automatic feeds which may hold 500 to 5,000 sheets. The copies are obtained when printing types or blocks, inked with printers' inks are pressed against the paper and impression is obtained. Inks of various colours can be used and the copies can be made very attractive.

Ticket and label printing machines. These machines are used along with other duplicating machines. These machines are used to overprint changeable details on tickets, labels, tags and cartons. These machines are available in different sizes and shapes and which can be adjusted to print different types and shapes of materials. Lables from 1.3 cm × 1.3 cm upwards in perforated rolls are available in the market. These perforated rolls are gummed or ungummed. These rolls are fed into the machine at a speed of 9,000 labels per hour. The lables can be cut to the required size after printing.

These machines are versatile. Almost any type of paper can be used from 6 kg approximately Bank to cards which are 0.2 cm thick. The maximum size is approximately 27 cm × 37 cm and the minimum size is 7.5 cm × 12.5 cm approximately. However, the actual duplicating area is 27 cm long and 20 cm wide with ink, and 18 cm wide with a ribbon approximately.

7. Offset lithographic duplicating machines. Senefelder discovered the lithographic process in 1796. Improvements in the process took

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place constantly and it was only in 1880 that lithographic process was perfected when zinc masters were used instead of stone, which were curved round a cylinder on the machine.

Process and principle of offset duplicating. Lithography is based on the principle of antipathy of grease and water. The process of offset duplicating is described below.

(*i*) *Preparation of the master copy.* The master is prepared on a plate made of copper, aluminium, paper or plastic. Of late the plastic plate, which gives as many as 10,000 copies and is very cheap, has become very popular. The metal plates made of copper and aluminium give an almost unlimited number of copies, say, as many as 50,000 copies. These metal plates also have the advantage of being stored easily for future use on lithographic machine. Metal plates can also be used for direct photographic reproduction. The master copy can be prepared in the following *six* ways: (*a*) *Special lithographic ribbon* is available which is put on the typewriter for typing on the master. In England and other advanced countries now multiple-use ribbons are available which can be used for all kinds of typing work. (*b*) *Special types of pencils, pens, brushes and ink* are available which can be used to write the matter on the master. (*c*) *Direct using types* can be used which can be proofed directly on the plate. (*d*) *Photographic reproduction* (black and white or colour, line or half-tone) can be used for lithographic process. The copy to be reproduced is first photographed to produce a negative. This negative is then printed on a sensitised plate in a way similar to the one adopted in photography where copies are obtained from the negative. (*e*) *Transfer* method is used for engravings which have to be reversed before printing by using a special transfer paper. (*f*) *Use of pre sensitised plates* is made. These plates have a negative which needs the fixing of a printing frame for the production of a photographic image on the plate.

(*ii*) *Fixing the master.* The master is then fixed on to the drum of the machine (usually the rotary type of machine is used) as per the needs of the machine.

(*iii*) *Use of colours.* Where a copy is required in more than one colour, it is necessary to use a separate master and a separate duplicate run for each colour.

(*iv*) *Duplicating process.* The machine is now put into operation (manually or otherwise). The master copy fixed to the drum is brought into contact first with *damped* rollers and then with ink rollers. The ink is also greasy and is repelled by the damp parts of the plate accepted by the greasy image. Thus a greasy inked picture

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of the original is obtained. This greasy inked picture is now transferred from the plate to a rubber covered cylinder called the '*blanket cylinder*', which picks up the reverse picture of the original material. This reverse picture on the blanket cylinder comes into contact with the copy paper and the image on the blanket cylinder is again reversed. This double reversal gives a readable copy on the offset machine.

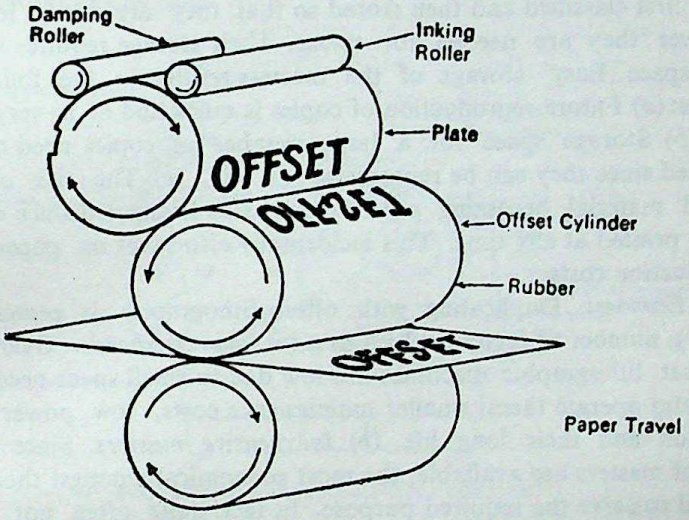

FIG. 13.6 The principles of offset lithography: a reverse print of a reverse is legible.

Scope and merits of offset lithography. Office lithography has a wide application in the offices of industrial and commercial organisations. All types of matter, from labels to pictures, can be duplicated in different colours. Offset lithography has the following unique advantages:

(*i*) *Speedy printing.* The small offset lithographic machines ensure great speed of reproduction of copies. As many as 6,000 copies can be reproduced in an hour depending upon the matter to be reproduced. Besides, the change from one job to another is also simple and very little time is needed to make adjustments for starting a new printing work.

(*ii*) *Ease and speed of preparation of the master.* The master plate can be prepared with great ease with hand or the typewriter. Hardly any training is needed to prepare the master and the master can be prepared with great speed. There are hardly any complications that

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worry the operation of the machine. The blocks or types do not get loose, there are no forms to lock; very little time is consumed to put the machine in motion; and there are a few adjustments to be made for damping, inking, feed and delivery. Above all, master is prepared in reading the right way round which means that there is no confusion in reversing left to right, especially for direct work.

(*iii*) *Easy storage of masters.* The masters can be stored with great ease for future use due to their compact size and light weight. They can be first classified and then stored so that they are easily located whenever they are needed for re-use. Their storage requires a very little space. Easy storage of the masters results in the following benefits: (*a*) Future reproduction of copies is quick and at a very low cost. (*b*) Storage space for a large number of copies need not be provided since they can be reproduced at will. (*c*) The risk of the printed material becoming out of date is also eliminated since copies can be printed at any time. This incidentally also saves on paper and reproduction costs.

(*iv*) *Economy.* Duplicating with offset lithography is economical due to a number of factors, which are: (*a*) *Low overheads.* Overheads of offset lithographic machines are low due to small space needed to instal and operate them, smaller maintenance costs, low power consumption and their long life. (*b*) *Inexpensive masters.* Since many types of masters are available, the most economical amongst them can be used to serve the required purpose. In fact, quite often not many copies are needed and thus the metallic masters may not be used at all. (*c*) *Saving in block-making costs* is also affected in such cases where illustrations and diagrams are to be used. (*d*) *Easy storage of masters.* Masters can be stored with great ease for re-use in future. Such storage of masters also requires a very little space. (*e*) *Changes in masters.* Masters can be changed subsequently to suit the changing needs. This also means lower reproduction costs of copies because facility to carry out changes eliminates the need for fresh masters.

(*v*) *Versatility.* Almost everything which falls within the range of the machine can be printed like typewritten circulars, reports, catalogues and booklets in many colours.

(*vi*) *Good quality of work.* The offset litho machine produces work of the highest quality. Perfection in work can be achieved because the tones of photographs, the subtle colours of a printing and the fine lines of drawing can be copied with great accuracy.

Indian manufacturers have not taken to the manufacture of office lithographic machines in a big way. An example of such a machine manufactured in India is 'Swift 150'. It is a small machine which can

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handle jobs up to a paper size of 35 cm × 25 cm approximately. It is claimed by its manufacturers that the cost of obtaining a copy with the help of this machine is as little as half a paisa or so. The speed of the machine can be fixed between 3,000 to 6,000 copies an hour. Plates can be made by typing direct on aluminium plates or photographic and *xerographic* processes can be used for the purpose of printing. Any type of paper from the manifold variety to art paper can be used and as many as 5,000 sheets of 20 lbs stock can be put into its feeder at one time.

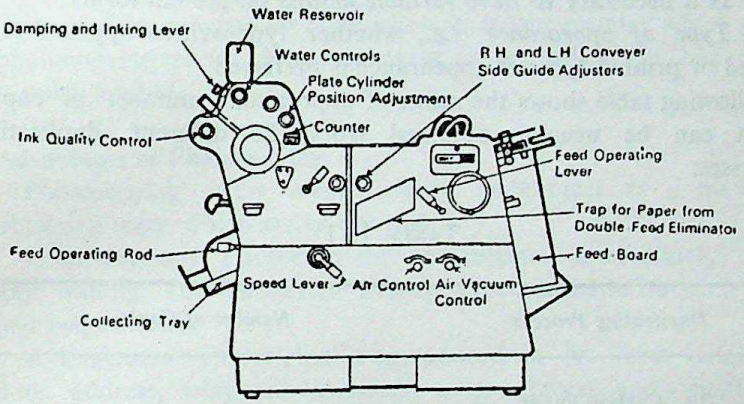

FIG. 13.7. An advanced offset duplicator.

Choice of Method of Duplicating

It is very difficult to lay down which method of duplication is most suitable for all purposes in the office, as there are so many factors influencing choice. A particular process which may seem cheap to instal and run may turn out to be the most expensive and inefficient in practice. On the other hand, some other process may seem to be expensive but may prove to be cheap and efficient if due care is taken and the maximum use is made of the machine.

We have already discussed the different aspects of various duplicating processes. We are, therefore, in a position to summarise the different factors, which should be considered in choosing a particular duplicating process. These factors are as follows:

1. *Number of copies* needed.
2. *Frequency of demand, i.e.,* how often the machine is to be used.
3. *Speed of reproduction* (which may be the most important single factor in certain instances).

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4. *Type of copy paper* to be used. Sometimes a good writing surface is desired.

5. *Economy in operation, i.e.*, the cost of materials and operator.

6. What *kind of image* is needed? Is it to be in half-tone, or a line drawing, or text?

7. *Change in size, i.e.*, whether it is desired to enlarge or reduce size of the original document.

8. *Number of colours* needed.

9. *Durability* of the master and image.

10. Is it necessary to have *variable details* on pre-cut forms?

11. *Type of appearance, i.e.*, whether type-written appearance is desired or printed type-set appearance is preferred.

Following table shows the range of approximate number of copies which can be usually obtained from the different duplicating processes:

TABLE 13.1

Duplicating Process	*Number of Copies*
1. Carbon Paper	
Standard Type-writer	5-10
Electric Type-writer	5-20
2. Spirit Duplicating	
Normal	10-100
Stencil	10-500
3. Stencil Duplicating	
Normal	10-1,000
Special	10-5,000
4. Offiset Lithography	10-1,000
Parchment	
Plate	500-over 5,000
5. Typeset Duplicating	1,000-over 5,000

PHOTOCOPYING PROCESSES AND MACHINES

Obtaining copies through the processes of photographic principles is photocopying. "The essence of photocopy is that it is an exact

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photographic copy of the original which is obtained by the use of a special machine, not requiring the incidence of typists." Earlier methods of photocopying were inconvenient and time-consuming. The older methods required the normal photographic processing, *i.e.*, a dark room, a sink and the running water. Modern methods of photocopying are versatile and fast. Today, the average photocopying machine can produce a copy within less than two minutes. The latest among the photocopying machines can produce a copy in four seconds.

Photocopying is becoming quite popular in our country. There are quite a few commercial establishments in our country which provide photocopying service. However its use in the offices in our country is much limited.

Advantages of Photocopying

Photocopying offers many unique advantages as a method of obtaining copy, which are as follows:

1. **Instant copy**. Photocopy can be obtained immediately without any waiting. The maximum average time needed to obtain a copy is just two minutes.

2. **Exactness.** The original is reproduced in its finest details. The date, address, telephone numbers, telex numbers, and signatures are reproduced.

3. **Versatility**. Photocopying process reproduces a copy which may be otherwise difficult to reproduce in the ordinary course. Sketches, diagrams, graphs and pictures can be reproduced.

4. **Eliminates need for a re-check.** The photocopy is not required to be checked and authenticated for the accuracy of its contents since photocopy is the exact replica of the original document. This incidentally saves time and labour of the clerical and supervisory staff in the office.

5. **Lower cost.** Photocopying machine can be operated by junior member of the staff as compared to the typist who may otherwise be required to prepare the copy. Thus labour costs may decline further.

6. **Low investment and operating costs.** The photocopy machine is neither very costly to instal nor very expensive to run. Besides, it can be easily accommodated in a small corner of the office.

Disadvantages of Photocopying

In spite of some unique advantages of photocopying it has some drawbacks which are summarised below:

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1. Limited number of copies. The method is not suitable where copies are needed in large numbers. In such circumstances, the time taken is very long. On the other hand, processes of duplication may prove very fast.

2. Uneconomical for large number. Where copies are needed in large numbers, photocopying may also prove a very expensive method. Instead some of the duplicating processes will be fast as well as economical. The cost per copy with the stencil duplicators or office offset litho machines may be very low.

3. Shorter life of the copy. The life of the photocopy is short on account of two reasons: (*i*) Photocopies *fade* compared with some copies obtained through some other duplicating process. (*ii*) The paper used for photocopying is coated with chemical emulsion, as a result of which it *curls up* instead of lying flat and this shortens the life of the copy.

Different Methods of Photocopying

Following are the nine different methods of photocopying:

1. Reflex Method;
2. Diffusion Transfer Method;
3. Gelatine Transfer Method;
4. Direct Positive Method;
5. Dye-line (Diazo or *Ozalid*) Method;
6. Electrostatic (or Xerography) Method;
7. Thermal Process Method;
8. Dual Spectrum Method; and
9. Microfilming or Microphotography,[1]

Of these nine methods, we would take up the more popular methods used in photocopying. They are discussed below:

Diffusion Transfer Method. In England, it is the most popular type of machine due to the following reasons:

(*i*) *Cheap*. The machine is very cheap and is thus within the easy reach of most of the offices.

(*ii*) *Number of copies*. It is possible to obtain as many as fifteen copies from the same negatives.

(*iii*) *Speedy*. The process gives one copy in a minute. This can be taken to be very fast considering the benefits of photocopying.

(*iv*) *Creation of offset plates economically*. The method can be used to create a negative and offset litho plates directly from a positive originally. This helps in saving time and money for offset litho

[1]Microphotography method is closely connected with the keeping of records.

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users. Incidentally, it is also possible to create a translucent master which can be used in conjunction with the dye-line process.

Method in Practice. The first exposure is made on to a negative. The negative is then processed in the machine along with a sheet of non-light sensitive paper to produce a readable copy immediately. In practice, the process involves the feeding of the positive and negative together in the machine with the original (document for which copy is needed) in between. After exposure, the original is removed and the negative and positive are peeled apart to get the completed readable positive print.

Dye-line (Daizo or Ozalid) method. Dye-line method, also called the blue-printing method, is a simple method of obtaining copies. The original, from which copies are to be produced under the Diazo process, is to be on a transparent or a translucent paper. This original is placed in contact with special dye-line paper and subjected to

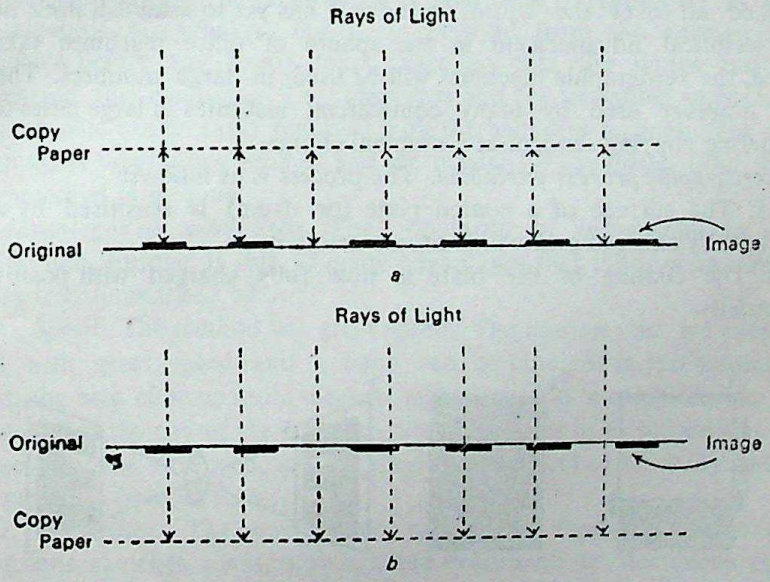

FIG. 13.8. Illustration of principles of photocopying
(*a*) Reflex method (*b*) Dye-line method.

light. The result is that the chemical coating on the copy paper is bleached white, leaving the image outlined on the paper, which is then developed by exposure to ammonia fumes or by the use of a developing fluid by which the image is dyed black.

The process offers many advantages. It is simple, quick and cheap

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for limited number of copies. The process can use the day-light or the artificial light. It is also a versatile process since copies can be obtained on card, *manilla* or linen. The day-line method is very useful in preparing charts, building plans and machine-design drawings, etc. In the modern office, it has proved very useful in the sphere of systems application where a great deal of repetitive work is involved. For example, it may prove very cheap to have office forms printed on transparent paper and to produce further copies when required by Diazo process.

The method, however, fails where a large number of copies is needed. The method, though cheap, lacks speed. The method can thus be useful only in a limited way.

Xerography or electrostatic copying. The methods explained above are either "wet" or "semi-dry". The process known as xerography completely eliminates wetness. The term xerography itself means "dry-pictures". The process was developed in the USA is now widely applied all over the world. In India, it has yet to establish itself but as technical advancement in the sphere of office machines takes place, the xerographic machines will be used in large numbers. They are however used by many commercial institutes in large cities for rendering copying services at a nominal charge.

Xerographic process explained. The process is as follows:

"1. The surface of a coated plate (or drum) is sensitised by an electrically charged grid which moves across it.

2. The coating of the plate is now fully charged with positive electricity.

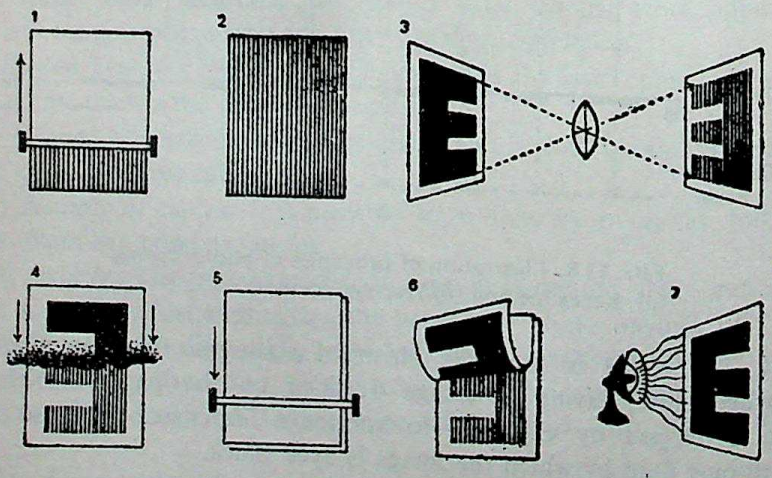

FIG. 13.9 How Xerography works.

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3. The original document-E is projected on to the coated plate. Positive charges disappear in areas charged to light. A pattern of charges is left on the coated plate of exactly the same shape as the dark part of the original document.

4. A negatively charged powder is dusted over the plate and adheres to the positively charged image.

5. A sheet of paper is now placed over the plate and receives a positive charged.

6. The positively charged paper attracts powder from the plate, forming a direct positive image.

7. The print is fixed by heat for a few seconds to form the permanent image."

Electrostatic plate-making for the offset duplicator. Xerography has also become a popular device for creating masters for the offset duplicator. The electrostatic plates prepared with the xerographic machine are of a very good quality and thus the copies reproduced from them are also of good quality. The plate is prepared in the electrostatic plate-maker, but it is removed from the xerographic machine before any fusing takes place so that the image can be examined for blemishes. The blemishes and the unwanted words and paragraphic can be easily removed with the help of a magnet. The use of magnet takes a few seconds and the master for the offset litho can be prepared in no time.

Advantages of xerography. The popularity of xerography in the USA and Europe is due to many advantages that the process offers. They are summarised below:

1. *Speed.* The method has great speed. The masters can be prepared with great speed and a copy can be obtained in just a second with the help of some more modern machines. If a sorting device is attached at the end of the machine, upto 50 copies of a succession of pages can be arranged so that they are in correct order ready to be stapled into booklet form.

2. *Versatility.* The xerographic process is versatile. Copies of diagrams, sketches, plans, drawings and every kind of document can be obtained in fine details. In the West, xerographic machines are extensively used for recording the cutput of computers as well. The Registrar General in London uses this process for copying birth certificates and it eliminates the chances of frauds.

3. *Masters for offset litho.* Masters for offset litho can also be obtained without delay and the unwanted paragraphs, sketches, drawings, etc. can be erased with the help of a magnet. This creates greater utility for the xerographic machine.

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4. *Accuracy*. Copies of the original obtained through this process are accurate. They are, therefore, good evidence in the Court. Copies of documents filed with the various Government departments, banks and financial institutions need not be attested or authenticated.

5. *Large number of copies*. Almost an unlimited number of copies can be obtained from the xerographic machine. This feature makes xerography suitable for large-scale needs.

6. *Simplicity*. The xerographic machine is simple to operate. With the use of a few buttons, the whole process gets completed. So much so that by pushing the "Print" button, even the desired number of copies can be produced accurately.

7. *Low operating costs*. The operating costs of the xerographic machine are low and this has made the machine popular in the USA and Europe. It is becoming increasingly popular in our country.

Drawbacks of xerography. Xerography in its popular form in the West has yet to gain popularity due to its more advanced technology and the cost that it involves in installing a xerographic machine. These drawbacks, however, are insignificant compared to the advantages of the process.

Microfilming or microphotography. Strictly speaking microfilming is not a copying process. Microfilming is connected with the maintenance of records. It is a means of retaining information by photocopying records in miniature on lengths (or rolls) of films. The idea of microphotography is not new,[1] although it is in recent years only that microphotography has gained a prominent place in the sphere of management. Microfilming is useful in more than one way—it saves costly office space, office paper, and overhead expenditure.

Process of microfilming explained. Records are first photographed by a camera, called the "recorder", on a 16 mm roll or 35 mm roll on the basis of the needs. This camera may have an automatic feeding device. Documents are inserted into the feeding device, which passes them forward to be filmed in correct sequence. The camera is also able to photograph both sides of a document at the same time. Microfilming has immense capacity to reduce the work of storing. Letter-sized 3,200 documents or 24,000 cheques (one side only) can be recorded on 100 feet of 16 mm film. Besides, as many as 6,000 photographs can be obtained in an hour. After the photogaphs of documents are obtained, the roll is developed into negative film. This film is numbered, indexed and filed properly.

[1]There are records of miniature photograph as long ago as 1853. (Denyer,

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The photographed copies can be used in two ways:

(*i*) *Use of scanner unit.* The filmed documents are projected on to a screen where they can be read by the clerk or the official consulting the records.

(*ii*) *Use of prints.* The prints of the required documents can be made by some machines. Such prints can be enlarged sufficienty to be read by the naked eye.

Advantages of microfilming. Microfilming offers a number of advantages in the sphere of record-keeping and copying:

1. *Economy of space.* Micro-filming is a great saver of space. It permits more than 99 per cent in space. Five thousand letters of standard size can be placed upon a 100 feet roll of 16 mm film and as many as 600 rolls can be filed in a cabinet 3 feet high. Such saving in space means great reduction in direct cost and space made available is freed for more productive use.

2. *Economy of time.* Documents can be copied at a great speed as much as six or seven times faster than by any other method. Thus there is great economy of time. Since time is of great value, the managerial taks of planning, direction, coordination and control, etc., are greatly facilitated.

3. *Safety of documents.* Safety of original documents is ensured because microfilm records of important documents eliminate the constant viewing of the original documents.

4. *Durability of records.* Microfilming eliminates the need for constant handling of original documents. These documents retain their shape and are not mutilated. The microfilm is not only more durable than the paper, it can be duplicated with great ease.

5. *Use in office systems.* Office systems are greatly aided by microfilming. Carbon copies of documents are not to be made, instead microphotograph is made.

Disadvantages of microfilming. Microfilming is a mixed blessing. It has its disadvantages, chief of which are as follows:

1. *Slow referencing.* Where frequent references are to be made to certain records, microfilming may prove to be a relatively slow process because the film has to be viewed through the "Reader".

2. *Difficulty in frame location.* Location of particular frames on many "Readers" may be difficult. This may result in further delay and frustration.

3. *Unreadable films.* If proper care is not taken, the film may be unreadable. This usually is the case where stale chemicals are used on films and the films are developed by indifferent staff.

4. *Corrections and insertions not possible.* Although microfilming

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produces an exact copy of the document, yet this may be a limitation by itself. Sometimes certain documents are to be altered or insertions and notes are made in the stored documents. Microfilming does not permit this. If any alterations or insertions are to be made, they can be made in the original documents and re-filming becomes necessary.

5. *Cost problems.* Sometimes the labour involved in sorting paper, removing pins, etc., may make microfilming very expensive for certain types of documents. It is, therefore, advisable to discard microfilming and make use of some other method of preservation of records.

Choice of Method of Copying

It is very difficult to state straightaway the best method of copying The decision has to be made in the light of facts. Following are some of the relevant factors which must be considered to decide about the desired method of copying:

1. The nature and size of the original, whether it is on transparent or opaque paper.
2. The nature of the ink used and the density of the image.
3. Are the documents single or double sided?
4. Is the information to be typed before duplicating?
5. The number of copies needed.
6. Relative labour costs of different copying methods.
7. Relative costs of expendable items, for example, of the copy paper and fixing and developing solutions.
8. The maximum convenience offered, for example, space required and special conditions of light needed.
9. Are colours in original necessary?
10. Permanency of image produced.
11. Are wet chemicals used? And to what extent they damage the machine and lose their properties.
12. The need to reproduce masters for offset litho or spirit duplicators.

Imprinting Processes and Machines

Imprinting devices for machines are allied to the copying processes. They stamp or print the same information on a number of forms or papers. The main *objectives* of such machines are: (*i*) saving of time; (*ii*) saving of labour costs, and (*iii*) reduction in monotony of repetitive office processes.

Impression stamps and numbering machines. Some very simple devices are used to record date, and time and number, etc. Rubber stamps

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are also used bearing the impression like *Paid, Received,* etc. Most date stamps have movable or adjustable date type. In the USA, in the case of certain date stamps, the date numerals are connected with a time-recording device controlled by clock mechanism so that every twenty four hours the date is changed automatically.

Some offices also use imprinting device for numbering forms, reports and other papers. It is a self-inking device which can be set to print each number once, twice, or repeatedly.

ADDRESSING MACHINES

The first addressing machine was sold commercially in 1893. This was much slower than the modern addressing machine with many automatic working devices and operating on electricity. The name "addressing" comes from the function for which the machine was first designed, namely, the names and addresses on newspaper wrappers. It is also known as the addressograph. The machine, in reality. is an office duplicating machine. Unlike the duplicating machine, instead of producing many copies of one master only, it prints one or more copies of each of a series of masters.

The addressing machine is now being used in many offices, commercial and governmental or semi-governmental, in our country. In the western countries, the addressing machine has been found useful in many spheres. It is used in preparing job cards and wage sheets and invoices. In fact, the machine is being used for all types of jobs involving repetitive information; say from week to week, month to month, or even year to year. (For example, dividend lists).

Addressing machines are being manufactured and assembled in our country. P.N. Gonesan (P) Ltd. are now manufacturing Ganesan-Weber Addressing Machines. The Bradma India Ltd. are also manufacturing these machines under their own brand name. These machines are operated manually or electrically.

Types of Addressing Machines

There are three types of addressing machines, each of which uses a different printing medium:

1. **Metal plate addressing machine.** This is one of the common types of machines. This machine is also in use in our country. It uses a metal plate made of zinc or aluminium on which is embossed the name, address or other information which is to be duplicated. The plates are embossed mostly by the manufacturers to begin with or by the office itself with the help of a machine which can be called a plate -

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embosser.

The plates in use are of many sizes, carrying from five to nine lines of type. They can be mounted with an index card bearing the information on the plate for quick reference, or plates can also be mounted on a record card. This results in a complete card index and addressing medium combined.

The metal plates have a definite advantage over stencils. They are stronger and, therefore, last longer. They are thus preferable where many copies are required or where carbon copies of each are needed.

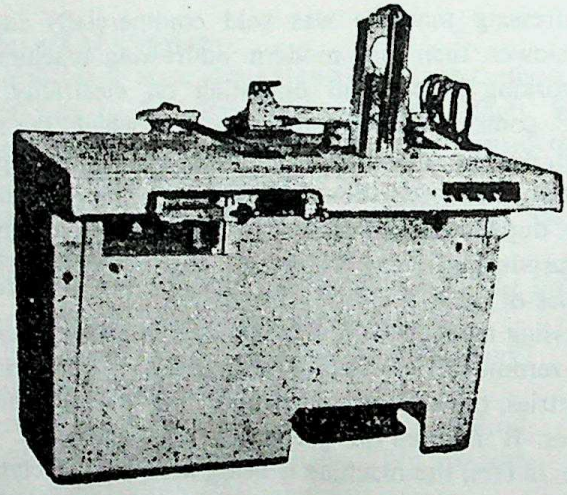

FIG. 13.10. Addressing Machine.

2. Film stencil addressing machine. Film stencil machine uses a film stencil mounted in a cardboard frame. To facilitate reference, the frame has a label, bearing the same information as the stencil below. Although the stencils are not as durable as metal plates, yet they have definite advantages over metal plates: (*i*) They are cheap. (*ii*) They can be prepared with great ease on a typewriter. (*iii*) They weigh less. Therefore, they are easy to handle, especially where female labour is involved. (*iv*) They are also completely visible as they print face uppermost.

3. Spirit master process addressing machines. These machines work on the same principle as the spirit duplicators. Although their masters are not very durable, yet they offer many advantages, chief of which are: (*i*) The master copies are cheap. (*ii*) The master copies can also be prepared with great ease on a typewriter. (*iii*) This addressing

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machine is cheap, neat and compact. Being compact, the machine occupies a very little of office space.

The spirit masters are made of art paper, and are typed with hectographic carbon at the back. After they have been prepared, they are mounted in plastic or cardboard frames.

Special Attachments of Addressing Machines

Metal plate addressing machines permit attachments which increase their utility greatly. These attachments are:

1. **A cut-off device.** This device permits only part of the plate to print at one time. This proves very useful where a portion of the information is printed in the first column of a spread sheet, another part in the second column, a third part in the third column, and so on.

2. **A selection device.** This device allows the machine to skip or pass over certain plates without writing them. This device is useful where the sequence of the plates is not to be disturbed for future work.

3. **A repeater device.** This device helps to repeat the same address or details (given in the metal plate) without "going back." Settings for triplicate impression are also available.

4. **A dating device.** With the help of this device, the date is printed along with the other data. This device is useful for letters, reports and statements.

5. **Tabbing sockets device.** This device inserts small metal projections into selected tabs of the plate. This results in selective sorting of the plates. The sockets are located along the top edge of the metal plate and tabs are put according to a code.

Advantages of Addressing Machines

Addressing machines are becoming popular in large organisations since they offer many advantages, which are summaried below:

1. **Saving time and effort.** There is a saving in time and effort due to their use. This can be well understood from the following table showing the amount of time taken for writing 1,000 sentences:

By hand	12 hours
By typewriter	10 hours
By manually operated addressing machine	2 hours
By electrically operated addressing machine	8 minutes

2. **Accuracy.** Addressing machines eliminate mistakes owing to faulty typing.

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3. Eliminate checking and supervision. These machines also eliminate the need for checking and supervision since mistakes are few. This results in cost reduction in the office.

4. Simplicity. Addressing machines are very simple to operate. As a result some junior person can operate them after a little training Thus it results in saving of overheads.

Disadvantages of Addressing Machines

These machines also suffer from some disadvantages, chief of which are:

1. High cost of installation. Cost of installing an addressing machine is fairly high in our country. Thus it can not be afforded by smaller offices, only the bigger offices can afford to purchase them.

2. Effect of changes in addresses, etc. The changes in addresses and other details are a normal feature of every organisation. Such changes cannot be made immediately. Either the plates are to be sent to the manufacturers of addressing machines for necessary changes, which may take the changes 3 to 7 days for getting incorporated; or expensive embossing machines must be bought to make the necessary changes in the metal plates within the organisation. Where machines using stencils are installed, alterations would be necessary in the stencil. Great care will have to be taken to see that alterations are made in the plate (or stencil) list. An "alteration book" should be kept for this purpose, which should be properly supervised and regularly referred to.

Use of Addressing Machines

Besides printing addresses, these machines are now used for:

1. Form letters for sales campaign,
2. Preparing statements and invoices,
3. Preparing dividend warrants,
4. Notices and reports of meetings,
5. Proxy forms for meetings,
6. Commission and credit lists,
7. Preparing time and job cards, pay sheets, pay slips and pay envelopes,
8. Ledger sheets headings, and
9. Record cards and index.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the object of selecting the right type of furniture for office work?

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Discuss the factors that must be considered in choosing office furniture.

2. Discuss the different types of furniture used in office. (*I.C.W.A., Inter*)

3. Why is it necessary to provide a proper desk to the office employee? Describe the different types of desks in use in an office. State the factors you would consider in designing desks.

4. What is the importance of chair to the office employee? State the different types of chairs. What factors would you take into account in designing chairs?

5. You are the office manger of new office of a large company. You have been entrusted with the task of providing furniture of different types. Describe how would you proceed with your task.

6 State the principles of office machines and equipment selection.

7. What do you understand by the term mechanisation in the context of office? What are its objects? How should you determine whether a particular machine is needed in the office?

8. Write a note on the advantages and disadvantages of mechanical devices in the office. (Delhi B. Com.).

9. State the various methods of duplication used in a large-sized modern office. Also discuss any two types of machines used in duplication work. (Delhi. B. Com.).

10. What is duplicating? State the factors you would consider in choosing method of duplicating.

11. Discuss the working and merits of stencil duplicators in the context of Indian office scene.

12. Discuss the working and merits of (*a*) Offset lithographic duplicating machines; and (*b*) Photocopying.

13. Write a note on letter press printing duplicators.

14. You are a management consultant specialising in the office function. You have been retained by a client, a large consumer goods manufacturing company, to advise on the means to be used for duplicating and copying. Give your advice.

15. There has been an upsurge in the popularity of Xerography. Why?

16. Discuss photocopying and its usefulness in the office.

17. What is an addressing machine? Discuss its advantages and disadvantages. State the uses to which addressing machines are put.

18. State the various methods of duplication used in a modern office. Discuss any two types of machines used in duplication work with their advantages and disadvantages. (*Co.-Secy. Prel. 1980*).

19. Discuss the addressing machine.

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Chapter 14

OFFICE FURNITURE, EQUIPMENT AND MACHINES—II

ACCOUNTING MACHINES

EVERY office provides accounting services to the organisation. The accounting services may be provided manually or with the help of accounting machines. Although most of the accounting work in the offices of our country is being done manually, yet mechanisation of accounting is becoming increasingly important in larger organisations. The reasons for this are:

1. Amount of figure work. Modern organisations, including the Government offices, have to cope with a large amount of figure work.

2. Needs of modern management. Modern management is demanding. Not only accurate figures are needed, they are needed quickly to take management decisions. Accuracy and speed are the essential features of accounting machines. They help in computing and analysing various types of figures for various purposes in a matter of minutes or even seconds. Hence the reliance of modern organisation on the accounting machines.

Various Types of Accounting Machines

Accounting machines can be broadly classified as follows on the basis of the work that they perform:

(*i*) Adding Machines.
(*ii*) Calculating Machines.
(*iii*) Posting Machines.
(*iv*) Punched Card Machines.
(*v*) Electronic Computers.

Accounting machines can also be classified as: (*i*) manually operated; and (*ii*) power-operated.

ADDING MACHINES

Adding is the commonest operation of all figure work. It is well-

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suited to mechanisation. Thus after the typewriter, adding machine is the most common feature of an office. Many other accounting machines are basically just adding machines having various additional features.

Adding machines are of two major categories: (*a*) Adding listing machines; and (*b*) Non-listing adding machines.

(*a*) Adding Listing Machines

Listing machines are those which provide a printed record of the items added and of the totals. On the other hand, non-listing machines do not have this feature. This listing machines provide the printed record on a strip of paper taken from a roll called the tally roll. To-day most of the adding listing machines are capable of subtraction. Besides, some of these machines can also print identification numbers or code letters and symbols to help in the matter of referencing.

Types of listing machines. Listing machines are of the following three types:

(*i*) *Full-key-board/Bank type.* In this type of listing machine, keys are numbered from "1" to "9". The number of columns determines the capacity of the machine, *i.e.*, the number of places upto which digits can be "put" into the machine for addition. The number of columns and capacities in common use are 8, 10, 13 and 17. In a 12-column key-board, there will be 108 keys in all (9×12). Each column denotes the place of the digit, *i.e.*, units, tens, thousands ten thousands and so on. If the key for digit 9 is depressed in the unit column, the result is that figure 9 gets recorded. Thus where the key for digit 9 is depressed in the lakh column, the result is that the figure 9,00,000 will get recorded. The zeroes (or noughts) get recorded automatically without depressing any keys. The amounts are first set up on the key board and are then transferred to the adding register, and printed on the tally roll by the depression of a motor-bar in an electric model or by the movement of a lever in a manual model. Besides the keys for figures, there may be keys for decimals and fractions and other devices to facilitate work of sub-totals, corrections and erasing, etc.

(*ii*) *Ten-key-board listing type.* Such a machine has 10 keys numbered "0" to "9" arranged in a compact formation. The amounts to be printed are set up by reading the figures from left to right and depressing the desired key in succession. Every figure is to be set up, including the zeroes (noughts). The amounts so set up are added by

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operating the motor-bar or the lever as in the case of the full key board machines. Some machines have keys for double zeroes and triple zeroes to speed up the work.

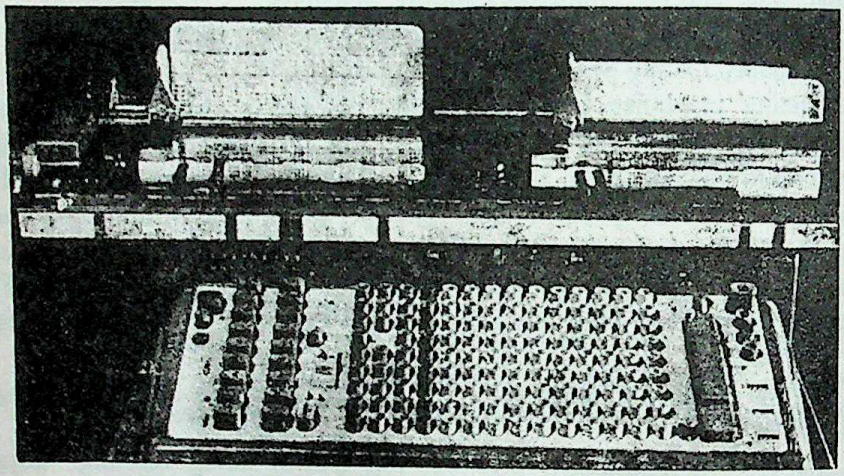

FIG. 14.1. Full-keyboard Adding Listing Machine.

Full-keyboard machine versus ten-keyboard machine. These two types of machines are more or less similar. But of these two, the full keyboard machine is more efficient than the ten-keyboard machine. The advantages of full keyboard type over the other type are that (*i*) noughts are printed automatically, (*ii*) since many keys can be depressed simultaneously, small amounts can be entered in one hand movement, (*iii*) quick correction of errors is possible, (*iv*) two entries may be made simultaneously, and (*v*) it is possible to make a visual check of the amount set up.

On the other hand, the ten-keyboard listing machine has its own advantages over the full keyboard machines. They are: (*i*) it is less costly, (*ii*) it is more simple and the touch operation is mastered with ease by the operator, and (*iii*) on the machines driven electrically, less hand travel reduces fatigue and increases speed.

(*iii*) *Half-keyboard machine.* This machine is similar to the machines already described. It can be described as the simplified version of the other two types of machines. In this type of machine, there are only 5 keys "1" to "5" for each position. Thus for digits over 5 in any position, it is necessary to depress two keys to make up the figure required. Quite often these machines are manually operated.

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Half-keyboard machine has the following advantages over the other two types of listing machines: (*i*) It is cheap to instal and operate. (*ii*) It is also very simple to operate and the operator requires hardly any training to do work on this machine. However, this machine suffers from certain drawbacks, chief of which are: (*i*) It has a limited speed. Hence accounting efficiency does not increase much. (*ii*) Complicated operations cannot be carried out on this machine, which restricts its utility.

(*b*) **Non-listing Adding Machines**

Such machines are also mainly of the above three listing types. The difference being that the non-listing machines do not print and the results are read from dials. They are very simple to operate. The amounts are set up on the keyboard and they are automatically added in the total dials. Motor bars or levers are not operated for operations. These motor-bars or levers are operated only to clear the totals from the dials at the end of an adding run. These non-listing adding machines may also combine other operations like that of multiplication and division. Such machines are calculating machines (which we are going to discuss in greater detail in this chapter).

Listing Machines versus Non-listing Machines

Both these types of adding machines have their own advantages and disadvantages.

Listing machines have the following advantages over the non-listing machines:

1. **Providing permanent record.** The printed list can be retained as a permanent record till the time they are needed, which is not possible with the non-listing machines.

2. **Easy rectification.** The running printed record provides for a quick review of figures on listing machines and errors can be rectified without delay. This is not possible on a non-listing machine in which record is wiped off after a series of operations.

3. **Use of less skilled operator.** The listing machines can be operated by even unskilled operators. On the other hand, non-listing machines require properly trained and skilled operators.

The non-listing machines also have their advantages over the listing machines, chief of which are as follows:

1. **Fast.** Non-listing machines may prove very fast since the motor-bar or lever is absent.

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2. Suitable to skilled workers. Non-listing machines are well-suited to skilled operators who can add the amounts twice in less time to check the totals.

Choice of an Adding Machine

The kind of work is the principal factor which would influence the choice of an adding machine, but in general the following factors may be considered to choose an adding machine:

1. Manual versus electrically operated. The choice is to be made whether the machine is manually operated or electrically operated. Manually operated machine is more compact and light. Thus if the same machine is to be used by many departments, a manually operated machine is better since it is light and portable.

2. Listing versus non-listing. The choice will depend upon the mode and desirability of the maintenance of records. Where it is necessary to have a tally sheet it might be better to have a listing machine, although the non-listing type is cheaper.

3. Type of keyboard. What type of keyboard is needed would also influence the choice. Much depends upon the nature and extent of office operations.

4. Price. Price is an important factor. Non-listing type scores over the other type in this matter. Also a manually operated machine is cheaper than the electrically operated one.

5. Reliability. Reliability of a machine eliminates delays and also saves on repair costs.

6. Simplicity. Simplicity is another plus point.

7. Speed. Speed of the machine is another factor to be considered. Where great speed is needed, more sophisticated and electrically operated machines are better.

8. Usage. So far as this factor is concerned, the keyboard capacity and the size of numbers which can be entered would be decisive.

Uses of Adding Machines

Adding machines are used for a number of jobs in any organisation where addition and subtraction are involved. For example, they can be used for pre-listing of invoices, preparation of trial balance, listing of cheques, totalling payments to bank, and cash receipts. Besides, they may help to total wage payments, prepare sales analysis and cost sheets, etc.

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CALCULATING MACHINES

Calculating machines have acquired great significance in modern business as part of the accounting and data processes. The needs of modern business organisations are many and varied due to their large scale. The calculating machines are a great aid to modern office.

These machines perform operations of addition, subtraction, division, multiplication, percentages, decimals, squaring, and square roots, etc. They also act as "memory banks" for a few operations to facilitate data processing. Thus these machines are used in the matter of calculations regarding discount, interest, exchange rate; and statistical data interpretation concerning sales, purchases, labour etc. Modern business, therefore, relies much on them.

Advantages of Calculating Machines

Calculating machines offer the following benefits to a modern office:

1. Relieves monotony. Much of the calculation work in the office is mentally tiring and monotonous. Calculating machines take over this work and thus relieve the office worker from monotony and consequent mental fatigue.

2. Speed. Time-consuming work of accounting and data processing is performed at a great speed. This quickens the pace of work and also helps in taking quick management decisions.

3. Portability. These calculating machines are portable. Hence their utility increases. Thus one machine may be used in a number of departments. This incidentally results in economy due to fuller utilisation of the machine.

4. Elimination of errors. Errors of calculation are eliminated by these machines. Elimination of errors results in accuracy and also reduces the mental tension of the office staff caused due to wrong tallies, etc.

Classification of Calculating Machines

There is a wide variety of calculating machines now available in our country. They are being extensively used by the offices in our country since they are manufactured by over a dozen manufacturers like the DCM, Weston, Intronix, Televista, etc. They range from the small pocket (dry battery-operated) calculator to the large desk calculator.

Calculating machines are operated more or less like the adding

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machines, with a few variations here and there. They can be broadly classified into the following five categories:

1. Printing calculators. This machine looks like the adding listing machine. The machine may have a full keyboard or simplified keyboard. To operate, the keys are depressed to register the multiplicand. Then the multiplier key is pressed and then the multiplier is entered. Finally the total key is depressed to have the answer. Some of these machines are fitted with a memory device which stores the desired figure till it is finally used in making calculations. Transfers can also be made to the memory register, and vice versa.

Advantages of printing calculators. These printing calculators offer many advantages, such as: (*i*) *Simplicity* is their principal advantage. Very little training is needed by the operator to use this machine. (*ii*) It is portable, which means optimum utilisation of the machine. (*iii*) It provides permanent record like the adding listing machine. (*iv*) Where it is fitted with the memory device, the machine adds greatly to efficiency.

2. Key-driven calculator. It is a calculating machine which has the features of a non-listing machine. The keys are depressed and the figures appear on the dials of the machine. Multiplication is done by repeated addition and division by repeated subtraction. For example to multiply 6 with 6, the number key is depressed 6 times.

3. Rotary calculator. It is a crank-driven calculator in which a calculation is done by one rotation of a handle. This calculator performs all the four arithmetical functions, *viz.*, that of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. Rotary calculators can be divided into two groups: (*i*) the lever-set type, and (*ii*) the key-set type. Both these, however, operate similarly. The figures are set up in the machine and appropriate keys are pressed and crank is rotated to obtain the result. Addition and multiplication process is carried out turning the crank clockwise and the process of subtraction and division by turning the crank anti-clockwise.

Rotary calculator has certain features, which are outlined below:

(i) The more advanced versions are either semi-automatic or automatic. This means that the operator has, to use a minimum skill and concentration to perform his job.

(*ii*) The time taken to train the operators is short due to its simplicity.

(*iii*) It is possible to make a visual check.

(*iv*) Calculation involves the repetitive use of one factor, this can be locked into the machine. This facility speeds up the process.

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4. Automatic (or electrically operated) calculators. This is an improved version of the rotary machine in which the function of the crank is taken over by appropriate keys and the machine is operated electrically. Comptometer is one such example of an automatic calculator.

The machine has all the advantages of the rotary calculator; as listed above. Its added advantages is its great speed due to automation. The machine also eliminates the fatigue and monotony of operating the crank time and again.

5. Electronic calculator. All the above types of calculators lack sophistication offered by the electronic calculator. "The electronic calculator is probably one of the biggest advances in office machines in recent years."[1]

These machines operate electronically and make use of transistors and valves as in the case of radio and television. These electronic calculators can be battery-operated or electrically operated. They are being increasingly manufactured in our country by a number of electronic firms, including Televista, Weston and DCM. Electronic calculator may have the full-bank or the simplified keyboard.

Advantages of electronic calculator. The electronic calculator offers certain unique advantages against other types of calculators, more important of which are summarised below:

(*i*) *Less wear and tear.* Since this type of calculator has no moving parts, the wear and tear of the machine is negligible.

(*ii*) *Silent.* The electronic calculator makes hardly any noise. Thus it is best suited to a congested office (or for that matter any office).

(*iii*) *Speed.* It is very fast and thus there is economy of time and consequent costs.

(*iv*) *Simplicity.* It is a very simple machine and as a result of this it is not necessary to give any specialised training to the operator.

(*v*) *Visual check.* It is possible to have a visual check of the figures and as a result the efficiency improves.

(*vi*) *Cheapness.* Electronic calculator happens to be very cheap due to technological advancement in the field of electronics in our country. It can thus be afforded by even very small organisations.

(*vii*) *Portability.* Electronic calculators are extremely light-weight and even many table models may be slightly heavier than the book that you are reading. This, therefore, allows for fullest use of a calculator.

[1]Denyer, *op. cit.*

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Choice of a Calculating Machine

It is not possible to make a particular suggestion for the choice of a calculator in the office. The choice is influenced most by one single factor namely, the nature and volume of work to be performed. Besides this factor, other factors to be considered are: the fuller use of the machine, cost of machine and the type of operator (skilled and trained or unskilled) needed to operate the machine.

POSTING MACHINES[1]

Posting machines are not popular in our country although some models from Burroughs, National and Remington are available. "Posting is a form of copying used in the transfer of amounts from original documents, or books of original entry, to the appropriate ledger accounts". This work can be done manually or with the help of machines specially made for this purpose.

Advantages of Posting Machines

The posting by machines has the following advantages: (*i*) Entries are legible. (*ii*) Since automatic totals of postings are available, entries can be taken to be correct. (*iii*) New balances are also accurate. (*iv*) Simultaneous postings are possible. (*v*) Most of the machines perform a variety of functions in addition to doing the posting work. (*vi*) Besides, they possess the other benefits of the accounting machines like neatness, reduction in monotony and fatigue, greater speed of work, and provide useful data for various purposes.

Drawbacks of Posting Machines

Although posting machines offer a number of advantages, yet they suffer from a number of drawbacks, which are summarised below:

(*i*) **Expensive.** Posting machines are expensive and hence they can be used only by bigger organisations.

(*ii*) **Costly training.** It is necessary to train people for handling and operating which may prove to be costly.

(*iii*) **Machines versus labour.** The choice of a given technique in the office is best indicated by conditions in the employment market.

[1]Posting Machines are also being described as accounting and book-keeping machines. By this definition the scope of the accounting machines is being restricted. In fact adding, calculating and punched card machines are also accounting machines.

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In our country, where labour is cheap due to abundance of employment-seekers, such machines can become popular only in a very limited way.

(*iv*) **Noise.** Posting machines are fairly noisy and thus they disturb other office workers.

(*v*) **Breakdowns.** Breakdowns may prove costly in more than one way, *viz.*, the repairs are costly and then the real costs in terms of dislocation of work are really heavy.

Different Types of Posting Machines

There are many types of posting machines. Most of the machines can do a variety of jobs. They not only write ledgers and other books of accounts but also write cheques, invoices, receipts and wages records. There is a wide range of posting machines which can be grouped into the following categories:

1. The Full Keyboard.
2. The Ten-Keyboard.
3. The Full Keyboard plus a Typewriter Keyboard.
4. The Ten-Keyboard plus a Typewriter Keyboard.
5. The Analysis Keyboard.
6. The Automatic Typewriter.

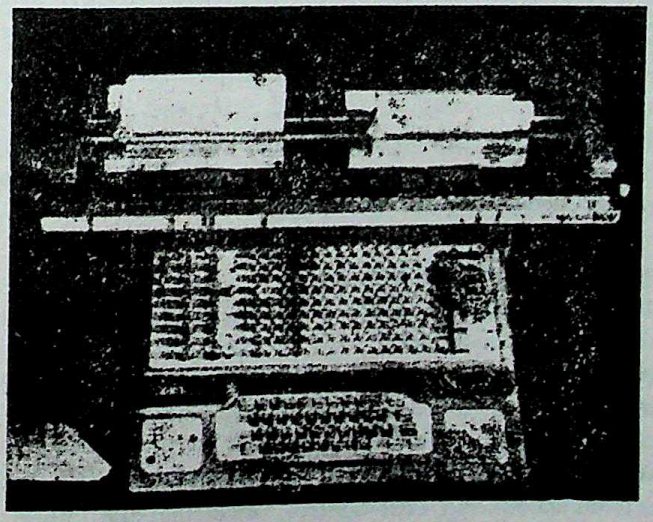

FIG. 14.2. Accounting Machine with full keyboard and Typewriter keyboard.

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PUNCHED CARD MACHINES

The punched card machines are not a common sight in the offices of our country. They are versatile and are used for a variety of purposes. These machines perform clerical operations like writing, copying, sorting and comparing. These machines take up routines like sales and purchase accounting, invoicing, cost accounting, inventory control and wage calculations, etc. The fundamental operation of a punched card machine is the recording of each item of information on a separate card (*See* Fig. 14.3 below) by means of punched holes. A special arrangement of cards is designed for each particular job and a separate card is made out for every item of information. These cards vary in size according to the number of columns provided

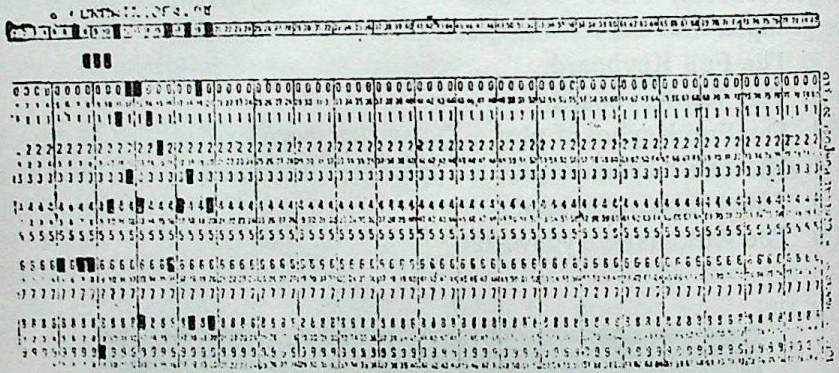

FIG. 14.3. Punched Card.

which many number 21, 40 and 80; and by special arrangement the number of columns can be as many as 160. Normally separate equipment is needed for each size of card.

Advantages of Punched Card Machines

Punched card machines offer a number of advantages, more important of which are as follows:

(*i*) **Speed.** Like many other machines, these machines ensure great speed. It is needless to say that speed is of great importance in modern organisations.

(*ii*) **Accuracy.** These machines also ensure accuracy. Elimination of errors from accounting, cost control, invoicing and other clerical routine leads to lesser clerical costs and better analysis of figures and facts.

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(*iii*) **Versatility.** Punched card machines can be used for a variety of purposes like cost accounting, sale and purchase accounting, preparation of inventories, etc. Thus the machines can be used to the fullest possible extent.

Drawbacks of Punched Card Machines

Although punched card machines offer many significant advantages, yet they too have their drawbacks. Two most important drawbacks are:

(*i*) **Cost of equipment.** The punched card equipment is costly and hence only large organisations can take advantage of such machines.

(*ii*) **Difficulty in preparing cards.** Not only the cards are costly, but their preparation requires utmost care. Besides, each card has to be punched and checked by hand which is a time-consuming process.

Equipment for Punched Cards

The range of punched card machines is wide and has been undergoing constant changes. In our country, these machines are marketed by the National Cash Register Co., and others. The equipment for punched cards is outlined below:

(*i*) **Punching machine.** Punching machine is the first requisite of the punched card system. The punching machine can be either a hand-punching machine or an automatic punching machine. The hand-punching machine is very commonly used in which each card is punched individually by hand. Punching starts in the extreme left hand column and as soon as a hole is punched in a column, the machine moves into the next position automatically. Verifying punch is used to check the punching done. This operation is similar to that of punching.

Automatic punching machines are usually used to reproduce on new cards the whole or part of the punching on existing cards. A punched card machine can also be fitted with a "mark-sensing" device which allows for the holes to be punched automatically to correspond with pencil marks made on the cards. As the name implies, this machine sorts and arranges the cards.

(*ii*) **Sorting machine.** A sorting machine consists of a feeding hopper to take a batch of unsorted cards and receptacles to correspond to the positions in the columns on the cards The machine works only on one column at a time and automatically senses that column on each card in turn which is then fed into the receptacle corresponding with the hole punched. The cards are arranged strictly according to the numerical order of the punchings. The sorting is done at a terrific speed of 650 a minute, though in practice the speed may be less.

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(*iii*) **Electronic calculator**. The electronic calculator reads data previously punched in cards and performs automatically the work of addition, substraction, multiplication and division in rupees and decimals.

(*iv*) **Interpreter**. This is a machine which "senses" the information punched on a card and repeats it in plain figures and letters usually along the top of the card. This helps the user read the card in the ordinary way.

(*v*) **Tabulator**. This can be described as the principal machine. It prints the final record resulting from the operations of machines described above. The tabulator is a printing machine which adds and subtracts. The tabulator takes a series of cards and prints on a roll of paper, a ledger card or any other document the information recorded on each card. It is capable of omitting information not needed for a particular purpose. Simultaneously it adds and subtracts the amounts in certain columns. Tabulators can have additional devices for cross-adding etc. The tabulator is a very versatile machine and is capable of printing invoices, sales analysis statement, purchases analysis statement or even post a ledger account.

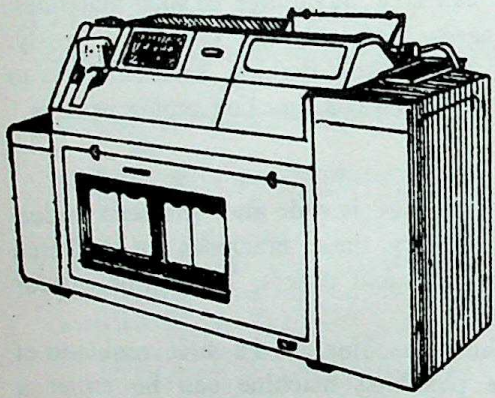

FIG. 14.4. Punched Card Tabulator.

Summary of Punch Card Operations

The punched card operations can be summarised thus: (*a*) Cards are produced for every item of information by using the punching machine, verifying machine and calculating machine. (*b*) Cards are arranged after they have been produced, with the help of the sorting machine. (*c*) Once the cards are produced and arranged, the cards are printed with detailed information by the tabulating machine in the desired form.

ELECTRONIC COMPUTERS

Modern age is the age of computers. In this computer age, electronics are becoming more and more important, at least in the West and

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Japan where electronic computers are used from sales forecasting to predictions about cosmos. Computers do not still occupy the place of honour in the offices of our country. They may not occupy, even for the next few decades, the place of importance they occupy in Europe, the USA and Japan. Although in our country, their use has been limited, yet they are gaining in popularity in the recent past. In the last 5 years or so, computers in hundreds have been installed and used by larger organisations.

Advantages of Computers

It is difficult to assess the advantages offered by a computer to a particular organisation. However, in general the use of computers offers the following advantages:

1. Provision of more information than otherwise possible.
2. Availability of control information at a great speed.
3. Indirect financial saving through various types of application, *e.g.*, inventory control, is possible.
4. Since monotonous manual office work is taken over by the computers, they reduce monotony of the staff.
5. Great speed with complicated calculations is possible only with the help of computers.
6. Direct saving in office labour costs takes place.
7. Better centralised managerial control is possible since a computer is usually installed at the central office.
8. Great accuracy (and total elimination of errors) is possible.
9. Flexibility is possible since a number of programmes can be prepared for different business operations.

Disadvantages of Computers

Computers have their disadvantages, chief of which are given below:

1. Costly. Computers are very costly to instal and run. This means that their usefulness can be derived only by large organisations.

2. Retrenchment. A single computer takes over the work performed by scores of workers put together. Retrenchment of staff and consequent strained personnel relations are the direct result of computerisation in an office.

3. Upsetting office systems. To begin with, computers upset all current office systems and routines of the business and may, therefore, initially adversely affect the working of the office.

4. Problem of trained staff. Properly trained staff for computers is often in short supply. However, the manufactures can train internal

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staff for computer programming and systems analysis.

5. **Costly preparatory work.** Computers can not be installed abruptly. Often preparatory work for two or three years may be carried out which may prove to be quite costly.

6. **Cost of breakdowns.** Where whole or a large amount of clerical work is being done with the computers, a breakdown may prove too costly. The office work will be completely dislocated.

7. **Change in technology.** A lot of time may elapse between the placing of order for a computer and its installation, which may range from 1 to 3 years. Since newer and more sophisticated models get manufactured, the ordered computer may turn out to be techically less competent.

8. **Centralisation of control.** Use of computer is centralised. Hence the control mechanism also gets centralised, in fact, it gets over-centralised. This results in shift in power to the computer room much to the disadvantage of the whole organisation.

9. **Improper assessment of needs.** It has been experienced in the West that the organisation often underestimate their requirements for computer.[1] This results in increase in salary costs, and also inadequacy of equipment. The latter defect also leads to more errors and consequently more frustration and slowing down of work.

10. **Computer fraud.**[2] Computer frauds can be committed, although they are still not very common. A computer fraud can be committed by feeding a fraudulent input document to the system or by altering the computer programme or computer storage. However, the frauds can be limited if a proper control system for the computers is designed in consultation with the manfacturers.

Computer: Its Functions and Uses

A computer can be described as a giant brain-machine which processes, analyses, stores and supplies information instantaneously. It has, therefore, found immense popularity. In the USA, atleast 1,00,000 computers were at work in 1974 in the field of business alone. It is further estimated that their member would grow to 1,50,00,000 by 1985. The number of mini-computers in use was 1,50,000 in 1974, while their number is expected to exceed 20,00,000 by 1985. Nearer at home (in India), by March, 1981, nearly 1,000 computers were installed by Hindustan Computers Ltd. Besides, many more computers and mini-computers are at work today in the country.

[1]Denyer J.C., *Office Management*, Macdonald & Evans, 1974.
[2]McRae, T.W., Computers and Accounting, John Wiley, 1976.

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Functions of computers. Their popularity is due to the functions they perform, which are summarised below:

1. They read information fed into them.
2. They store information until needed.
3. They perform arithmetical operations of all types.
4. They perform a sequence of operations since they are mostly programme controlled.
5. They interpret results.
6. They give the required information as and when needed.

Uses of computers. Uses of computers can be made at two levels of management, *viz*, first, at the higher level of management and second, at the lower level of management. In other words, computer is used for control and direction; and for organisational routines.

In business. Routine uses of computers in business are given below:

(*i*) *The payroll.* The computer prepares the payroll with all its details, like gross pay, individual deductions, tax liabilities of the employees and so on.

(*ii*) *Stock control.* The computer helps exercise the type of stock control needed by the organisation. It updates the sales and purchases records, determines optimum re-order levels for different items and prints out the stock lists when desired.

(*iii*) *Sales account records.* Programming can be done for any sales accounting system. The computer will pinpoint defaulting debtors, determine the right limit for credit for each debtor and maintain debtors ledger.

(*iv*) *Costing and budgetary control.* Costing and budgetary control can be affected through the computer. The computer will point out the variations from the planned performance.

(*v*) *Production control.* The computer also helps greatly in production planning and control. It is possible that re-scheduling of the work may become necessary due to breakdowns, etc. A new *critical path* may have to be worked out. A critical path is the shortest path to be followed in production to achieve production objectives. The computer helps the management lay down this new critical path.

(*vi*) *Communication.*[1] The computer is increasingly used as a means of communication. The messages can be sent through a central computer and also received similarly at a terrific speed from locations wide apart. This use has greatest application in the office.

In government. Governmental tasks are greatly helped by the computer. Some areas in which the computer has helped the government

[1]See Chapter 16 on Communication.

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are as follows:

(*i*) *Economic planning.* Modern economic planning is a complicated process with so many divergent forces at work. The computer works out details for planning. It also helps assess the performance of economic plans.

(*ii*) *Fiscal and monetary control* The computer helps evolve the fiscal and monetary control policies, and their subsequent performance can be assessed with the help of the computer.

(*iii*) *Foreign trade.* Just as an individual organisation, so also a nation trades with other nations. Foreign trade trends can be projected and performance can be checked with the help of the computer with the planned targets of exports and imports.

(*iv*) *Government undertakings.* Performance of Government undertakings can be assessed with the help of the computer after their economic and social goals have been defined.

(*v*) *Miscellaneous.* The Government can use the computer for various studies regarding population, production, employment, etc. in general. In fact we can think of any area in government affairs and the computer can be used.

Types of Computers.[1] There are all sorts of computers in the market. It is difficult to classify them. However, we attempt a classification, which can be considered as relevant is the context of advances made in the field of computer technology classification is as follows:

1. *Desk-top* and mini-computers.
2. The larger or *commercial* computer system.

1. Desk-top and mini-computers. These computers are small and portable. In fact some of them weigh as little as 22 kgs. or so. These mini-computers are not so "competent" as their fore-runners, the commercial computers. They appeared on the American educational and business scene only about four years ago and have become very popular. They have been classified into two categories by the computer expects: (*i*) The *low-end category*, costs no more than $ 2,500 or (say) about Rs. 20,000, which amount by American standards is very very small. The low-end desk computer is, of course, not very sophisticated and used mainly in education. (*ii*) The *high-end category*, which costs $15,000 or (say) Rs 1,20,000 is quite advanced. It has greater main memory and allows for the use of more sophisticated software. It also has increased storage capacity.

2. Commercial computer systems. They are the large, sophisticated

[1]**There is a very interesting study on computers in "*Commercial Newsletters*" (Nov./Dec., 1980) Published by U.S. Commercial Office in India.**

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computers which are the fore-runners of the mini-computers and still retain a lead over them. They are complicated machines and dominate the business, economic and scientific field in all the advanced countries of the world.

Analog and Digital Computers

Computers can also be classified as *analog* computers and *digital* computers.

Analog computers. Analog computers are used for scientific analysis. They continuously accept data regarding subjects like temperature, speed, voltage, velocity, etc. This data is analysed on the basis of programmed instructions. Answers are then given continuously on the basis of this analysis. These answers may often cause responsive action in some other machinery, e.g., tracking and controlling a rocket.

Digital computers. Digital computers are used in business. A digital computer draws its conclusions by counting. It is this kind of computer whose working and effects we would study in the following paragraphs.

Understanding Computer

Computer is a complicated machine and much can be written on understanding it. However, the object of our study being limited, we would only consider certain fundamentals to understand it. In fact the idea is to explain the terms most often used in relation to the computer.

Use of business system. In our day-to-day work, we make use of "*denary*" method of arithmetic which is based on ten *digits* (0 to 9). Computers use "*binary*" method, which is based on a two-digit system. The following table illustrates how the denary numbers are converted into binary figures.

1	becomes	1	(binary)	6	becomes	110	(binary)
2	,,	10	(,,)	7	,,	111	(,,)
3	,,	11	(,,)	8	,,	1000	(,,)
4	,,	100	(,,)	9	,,	1001	(,,)
5	,,	101	(,,)	10	,,	1010	(,,)

From the table above it may be noted that 2=10 (binary); 2(4)=100; 2(8)=1,000; 2(16)=10,000 and so on. Thus in order to convert a binary number to denary, it is only necessary to equate the position of the digits as illustrated below:

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1	1	0	1	0	1	1		Binary
2^6	+ 2^5	+ 0	+ 2^3	+ 0	+ 2	+ 1	= 107	Denary

A binary number can be easily set if sufficient values are used in the computer to have some as positive and some as negative. Further, it is also quite simple to arrange the electronic mechanism so that the value works to binary system, i.e., one impulse IN and two impulses OUT, and the impulse is passed on to the next valve.

Programming. A *programme* (in computer language) can be defined as a complete package of instructions for a computer to process specific data. This programme is developed by *programming*. Programming consists of breaking down in most complete detail the operations to be programmed by the computer. Programming is done by a programmer. The programme is stored internally and the processor has access to the instructions as required.

Computer (or Programming) Languages. The language used by a computer is a special language. The programming is based on this special language used by a computer system. Following are the more common language systems for computers:

ALC (Assembler Language Coding)
ALGO (Universal Algebric Language Compiler)
ALGOL (International Algebric Compiler)
COBOL (COmmon Business Oriented Language)
FORTRAN (FORmula TRANslating language for scientific computations).
PL/1 (Programming Language number one)
BASIC (Beginners All-purpose Symbolic Instruction Code).

Of the above computer languages, FORTRAN and COBOL are used most commonly. FORTRAN was developed in 1957. It was the most widely used language till 1970. It is an automatic coding system and is like the ordinary language of mathematics. It is capable of dealing with problems which have large sets of formulae and variables subsequent "generations" have been FORTRAN II, IV, etc.

COBOL is the language which is in greatest use for business data processing. It is an English language programme used on digital computers. It was first formulated in 1959. In can be considered as problem-oriented and quite simple.

BASIC has been designed keeping in mind scientists, economists, businessmen and other professionals who are not experienced programmers. It enables users to remain in their home environment while using the power of a single large computer system.

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Hardware and Software

"Hardware" refers to the machines in use of the computer installations. Usually a central processing unit can be provided with a very wide choice of peripheral units. Also different external storage units can be attached to the computer for different purposed.

"Software" refers to the systems analysis and programming which has to be performed before a computer can be used.

Systems Analysis and Analysts. We have already considered what is programming, which forms a part of the software. Systems analysis can be defined as the analysis of the jobs that computers are to do and dividing the A.D.P. (Automatic Data Processing) systems in broad terms. This work is performed by the system analysis.

Computer at work. Figure 14.6 shows the computer scheme in all

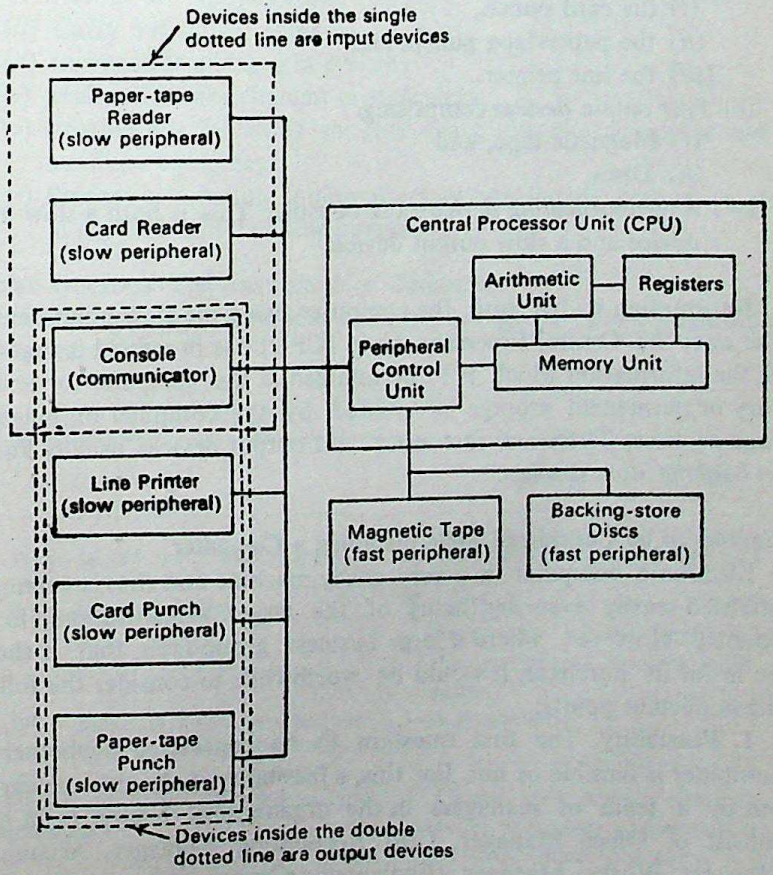

FIG. 14.6 A general computer configuration.

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its details *i.e.*, the components of a general computer configuration.

The main components are as follows:

(*a*) *The central processor unit*, comprising:
- (*i*) the memory unit,
- (*ii*) the arithmetic unit,
- (*iii*) the registers, and
- (*iv*) the peripheral control unit or units.

(*b*) *Slow input devices* comprising:
- (*i*) the card reader, and
- (*ii*) the paper-tape reader.

(*c*) *Fast input devices* comprising:
- (*i*) Magnetic tape, and
- (*ii*) Backing-store discs.

(*d*) *Slow output d ces* comprising.
- (*i*) the card punch,
- (*ii*) the paper-tape punch, and
- (*iii*) the line printer.

(*e*) *Fast output devices* comprising:
- (*i*) Magnetic tape, and
- (*ii*) Discs.

(*f*) *A communicating device*—the console. This is both a slow input device and a slow output device.

Information is fed into the computer using the slow input devices, but once the Central Processor Unit (CPU) has processed it that part of the information which is to be retained in the computer for temporary or permanent storage is created by the computer on magnetic tape or discs. These are fast input and output devices usually known as *backing store* devices.

Factors to be Considered while Installing a Computer

Electronic computer is a very costly machine and thus it cannot be afforded easily even by many of the larger organisations in our country. However, where a large business group feels that it should go in for its purchase, it would be worthwhile to consider the following important points:

1. Feasibility. The first question to be considered is whether the computer is feasible or not. For this, a feasibility study must be carried out by a team of managers in the organisation. Such a team must consist of Office Manager, Cost Accounting Manager, Accounting Manager, Works Manager (Engineering Group), and such important executive who is bound to use the computer from time to time.

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2. The choice of machine. Once the feasibility study shows that computer is needed, the question of the choice of machine arises, which will involve the following considerations:

(*i*) Find out if there is a suitable machine in the market.
(*ii*) Should the machine be bought outright or taken on rent?
(*iii*) What are the methods of input and output?
(*iv*) Decide the volume of work to be involved.
(*v*) Decide the speed of processing necessary in order to perform the work.
(*vi*) Decide the comparative cost of doing the work with the computer *vis-a-vis* the cost of doing the work through other means.

3. Installation of the computer. The following factors must be considered for installation:

(*i*) Introduce changes in the organisation which are necessary in view of the computer use.
(*ii*) Carry out staff training.
(*iii*) Incorporate changes in systems.
(*iv*) Make necessary changes in stationery.
(*v*) Provide (or prepare) suitable space for the computer and its auxiliary equipment.
(*vi*) Prepare a schedule timing of actual installation, testing, running in parallel, and then line operation.

Some Questions and Answers on a Computer

Some questions and their answers are given below regarding a computer:

TABLE 14.1

Questions	*Answers*
1 What is the main part of computer?	1. The Central Processor Unit (CPU).
2. What does it contain?	2 (a) The memory unit; (b) the arithmetic unit; (c) the registers; (d) the peripheral control unit or units
3. What name is given to a body of instructions fed into the computer?	3 A programme.
4. How is the programme fed into the computer?	4. A slow input device, either a card reader or a paper tape reader, reads the programme and turns it into machine language.

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Questions	*Answers*
5. What is the basis on which a computer works?	5. A simple current on and current off system which represents 1 and 0.
6. What arithmetical system is used?	6. The binary system.
7. What is peripheral unit?	7. It is a unit outside the CPU, standing, as it were, on the periphery or boundary of the system.
8. What are the two fast peripheral devices?	8. Magnetic tape and disc.
9. How fast do these peripherals work?	9. Between 80,000 and 2,00,000 characters per second.
10. What is the function of the fast peripherals?	10. To store the more permanent data which will be needed in later runs, and load them into core as and when required.
11. What is the console?	11. A device for communicating with the computer and receiving messages from it.
12. What is the final output of a computer most likely to be?	2. A print-out by the line printer of the processed data.
13. How fast does it print out?	13. Commonly at about 1,300 lines per-minute.

SOME RECENT ADVANCES IN COMPUTERS

The world of computers is very fascinating and awe-inspiring. All modern weapon systems rely greatly an computers. Similarly science, technology, business, economics and government rely greatly on compters. Recent advances in compuaters are amazing. In most advanced countries today, in many of the newspapers offices, electronic equipment is used to write and edit newspapers. Airline booking is through a network of computers located in different cities. The work is so fast that pencil (or pen) and paper are almost eliminated because 2,000 characters can be sent and received in one second. The police uses minicomputers to check records on traffic violator. The computers analyse chemicals. They are available for use in hospitals to process clinical data.

Computers find greatest use in the field of business. The following illustrations explain the use of computers in the field of information.

In Unilever (in England), typists are connected to a computer via individual keyboard, each with a video screen on which mistakes

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can be easily rectified (correction takes about 40 per cent of a typist's time). Standard letters, held in the computer's memory, need only the name and address to be attached. The typist handles no paper or carbon, printing (and filing) being done by the computer.[1]

Computer is no longer centralised affair in the case of Corning Glass Works in the USA employing 30,000 employees. Computer is located a few miles away, from the headquarters and is linked to it. Terminal systems have been located at important locations and linked with the "machine". This means decentralisation of a centralised facility for data processing and information.

In England, the concept of dispersed organisation is making advances with the help of computers. Freelance International Ltd, is in computer software business (computer programming). It employs 350 freelance programmers, who sit at home and work, 30 of whom have terminals in their homes. They transmit their advice to the group's headquarters. This is the wonder world of computers.[2]

In our country, we cannot remain ignorant of the power of computers in business—for data processing and information and many other applications. The computer has started playing an important part in mamy organisations. Considering the era in which we live and the problem of our growing numbers, it would be necessary to strike a balance between computerisation and "humanisation" so that there are no social conflicts.

There are some more important machines that are used in modern office. They are described as follows:

CASH REGISTERS AND COIN HANDLING MACHINES

Cash registers and coin handling machines are a part of the accounting system. In some of the offices cash handling is one of the most important aspects of work done. In fact, "Cash Department" may be the sole important department of an office in an organisation, *e.g.*, in a chain store or super market where sales are strictly on cash basis. In such places, cash registers and coin handling machines are used.

Cash Registers

Cash registers are quite a common sight in many of the large retail stores even in our country. "National" and "Burroughs" are two popular models of cash registers. Cash registers can be broadly des-

[1]Economist of 3 July, 1976.
[2]Charles Handy, *Gods of Management*, Souvenir Press, London, 1978.

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cribed as those machines which total up different transactions and show the total amount either on a slip of paper or in the meter in the machine. The cash registers can thus also be used to find out the total amount with the cashier at the end of the day.

Types of cash registers. There are three types of cash registers:

(*i*) Press-down-key cash register,

(*ii*) Lever cash register, and

(*iii*) Press-in-key cash register.

Press-down-key cash register. It is the type in which keys are pressed as in the case of the typewriter. In most registers available now, the amount of record is first picked out by putting only half-pressure on the desired keys. The amount can then be inspected before the keys are finally fully pressed. Where the half-pressed keys indicate a wrong record, the release key can be pressed to restore the keys to the neutral position. Some of these cash registers record, besides cash receipts, credit sales, "No Sale" and money paid out. Many of these cash registers are also equipped with an "audit roll". This audit roll is a strip of paper which is placed in a prominent position so that the record of last ten or so transactions is visible. The audit roll is wide enough to write notations to be entered against the printed amounts at the time when they are recorded. The machine can add the amount into one or two totals. These totals can be obtained from the register (*i*) by printing the total direct on the audit roll, or (*ii*) by reading the total direct from the addition wheels, or (*iii*) by the insertion of a special slip in the machine on which the total gets printed.

Totals can be reset at zero by depressing the appropriate keys. But these keys are locked. Keys for these locks are provided to the officers concerned to reset the totals at zero after the expiry of a given sales period and before the beginning of the new sales period.

Lever cash register. A lever cash register has certain distinct features. It permits upto four totals and is fitted with drawers for keeping cash. Some of the models can give a register-printed bill to the customers. Four basic transactions, namely, credit sales, cash sales, cash received and cash paid, are recorded separately. Lever cash register is electrically operated and is also often fitted with alternative handle operation. Usually the lever type cash register has a much greater recording capacities. The machine also prints complete registration details of every transaction on the audit roll. The chances of errors are minimised because the cashier can see the "indicator" to find out whether the selection of levers has been made correctly or not. The operator thus first checks the "pre-selection"

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before the machine is operated. Some of the lever type registers have a numbering device to record reference numbers. Eight small levers are normally provided for this purpose.

Press-in-key cash register. This type of cash register is more flexible than the other two types of registers discussed above. Its range of recording transactions is wide. With this type of cash register, an amount can be recorded in the concerned transaction total, departmental total and total of the dealing assistant or salesman through a single operation. In a more sophisticated model, it is also possible to have totals for quantity and money both. This cash register has keys like those in the adding machine. The keys are arranged vertically on the front panel. The keys are pressed to set up the transaction to be recorded. Then the motor, a handle, or motorised total key is depressed to complete the process of record.

The press-in-key type register has a special feature, namely, "itemisation". It is a process in which each item of a multiple-item sale is recorded separately. When all items have been recorded, the register automatically totals the amount of the sale. Another unique feature of this type of cash register is that register-printed voucher of the customer and the audit roll show every item and the total.

Many such registers are fitted with a "repeat key". This repeat key is very useful in those businesses where the number of items of sale is not large and goods are sold by length or weight or in multiples of identically priced items. The repeat key is kept depressed to record similar registrations and the total of a sale is obtained. Some of these machines of this type have subtraction keys to subtract amounts, *e g.*, the amounts of discounts, bonuses, etc. The deductions are shown separately and the net total is also obtained. Some of these machines are fitted with the balance change device which indicates the amount of change to be returned to a customer.

Coin Handling Machines

These coin handling machines are hardly in use in our country, although they are quite popular in the countries in the West. These machines are used in organisations where coin handling is of great importance, *e.g.*, in banks, on railways stations or large departmental stores. These machines separate the different types of coins after they are passed through these machines and the totals also get recorded on the dials. There are then coin changing machines which automatically calculate the change from the amount tendered and give back the correct amount of change to the customers.

Advantages and drawbacks of coin handling machines. Coin hand-

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ling machine offers many advantages, more important of which are as follows:

1. *Speed.* The tedious work of separating and counting coins of different denominations is done at great speed and thus saving in time takes place.

2. *Accuracy.* Calculation of balance of change payable to the customers is done accurately. The chance of error, therefore, gets eliminated completely.

Considering the economic situation in our country coin handling machines can be described as unnecessary and wasteful. They are expensive to buy and costly to maintain.

MAILING MACHINES[1]

There are many types of mailing machines, which are commonly used in the offices in the West and some of them have also found uses in the offices in our country. Some of these machines are as follows:

Letter Opening Machine

As the name suggests, this machine is used to open the mail. Envelopes can be opened at a speed of 100 letters to 500 letters per minute depending on the design of the machine. The machine opens an envelope by cutting a very narrow strip from one edge of the envelope.

The greatest advantage of this machine is its great speed at which work of opening letters can be performed. However, it has one disadvantage, *i.e.*, there is danger that the contents of the envelopes may be cut and damaged. However, this happens rarely.

Paper Folding Machine

As the name suggests, it is a machine which folds papers for putting them into envelopes. An electrically operated machine of this variety can carry out 10,000 to 20,000 folds per hour. The machine is not in common use in our country. In the West, where labour is scarce and costly, this machine is of particular use where a large number of letters and circulars is to be sent out.

Envelope Sealing Machine

This machine dampens and sticks down the flaps of envelopes. The machine is particularly useful where the number of envelopes to be sealed is large. The machine is not being commonly used in county.

[1]*See* **Franking Machines in Chapter 17.**

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Mailing Machine

It is a machine which combines a number of mailing operations. It folds envelopes and sales in one operation at a speed of upto 2,500 envelopes per hour. Some of the models of this machine can fold 2,500 envelopes in a single hour. The machine is of great use where circulars are to be sent out. It adds to the efficiency of the mailing operations. The machine is not commonly used in the offices of our country. In the West, with scarce and costly labour, the machine has proved a boon to the office.

MISCELLANEOUS MACHINES[1]

Some other machines in a modern office are as follows:

Time Recording Machines or Clocks

Time of arrival and departure of employees in the office or factory can be recorded in hand or with the help of machines. Time recording machines are in universal usage in the advanced countries of the world. In our country the time recording machines are used by many factories. The offices seldom uses these machines.

The more popular of these machines print time on cards. Every worker is allotted with a separate card which fits into the time-recording machine. When the worker comes into the office (or factory), he inserts his card into the machine and time of arrival is printed on his card. At the time of departure, the process is repeated. In most cases the time card is combined with the job card allotted to each worker.

Advantages of time-recording machines. Time-recording machines offer the following advantages:

(*i*) *Accuracy.* Exact time of arrival and departure is recorded accurately.

(*ii*) *No disputes.* Disputes between management and employees about time of arrival and departure are eliminated since time is recorded properly.

(*iii*) *Speed.* The time is recorded at a great speed. Thus a worker does not have to wait for his turn.

(*iv*) *Easy wage calculation.* Where time recording machine is installed, wage calculations become simple. The time card has additional columns for jobs done and the wages to be paid on the basis of time and jobs recorded. Thus wages to be paid are calculated with great

[1] *See* Dicatating Machines in Chapter 16 on "Communication."

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ease. Cross-referencing about time add jobs is easy.

(*v*) *Aid to cost accounting.* Even when wages are paid on time basis, combined time and job records help the cost accounting department. Time spent on different jobs is allocated correctly and exact cost of doing a given job is estimated properly.

Protectograph Cheque-Writer Machines

These machines "shred" the figures, words and crossings into the very fibre of a cheque. This process of shredding eliminates the possibility of a fraud and alteration of the contents of a cheque. These machines are used quite commonly in the office in our country.

Payroll Machines

These machines, also called steel pay-masters, perform many functions regarding payment of wages. They make up the denominations for the pay-roll, count the exact money for each envelope and then place the money in each envelope. Some of these machines also make different calculations regarding wages. These machines are not at all used in our country.

Tod Cheque Signing Machines

These machines imprint the specimen signatures of the drawers of cheques simultaneously. The reproduced signatures cannot be forged. Such machines are not used in our country.

QUESTIONS

1. Briefly describe the functions and working of three labour-saving devices used in the office.
2. Describe the working and merits of the following office appliances: (*a*) Duplicating machine; (*b*) Calculating machine; (*c*) Cash register; and (*d*) time-recording clock.
3. Name the principal office machines used in the following departments and describe their functions: (*a*) Mailing Department; (*b*) Correspondence Department; (*c*) Cash Department; (*d*) Accounting and Billing Department; (*e*) Statistical Department.
4. What are accounting machines? Discuss their uses in modern office.
5. What are adding machines? State their different types. What are their uses? What factors would you consider in choosing an adding machine.
6. What are calculating machines? Discuss their benefits to the office. State the factors you would consider in choosing a calculating machine.
7. Write a note on posting machines.
8. What are punched card machines? Discuss their advantages and drawbacks. Briefly describe their working.

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9. What are electronic computers? Discuss their merits and demerits. What are their functions and uses? Is it true to say that they are the future office machine in our offices?

10. You are the General Manager (Administration) responsible for all the administrative management functions of a very large manufacturing company, having worldwide contacts. Your Managing Director wants you to prepare a feasibility survey for the installation of a computer advising him the need for it. Make a case for computerisation.

11. What are the different types of computers?

12. Write notes on: (*a*) Binary system; (*b*) Programming; (*c*) Computer language; (*d*) Hardware; (*e*) Software; and (*f*) Systems analysis.

13. Write a note on the working of a computer.

14. State the recent advances made in the sphere of computers.

15. Write Notes on: (*a*) Coin handling machines; and (*b*) Protectograph.

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Chapter 15

FORMS: DESIGN, MANAGEMENT AND CONTROL

OFFICE FORMS

"A form is a standardized record used to accumulate and transmit information for reference purposes." In other words, "an office form is a printed piece of paper which provides space for entering records, information, or instructions which are to be conveyed to other individuals, departments or enterprises." Examples of forms are the factory orders, requisitions, purchase orders, sales data and invoices.

Types of Forms

Forms can be classified on the basis of the operations or office functions for which they are used. *e.g.*, correspondence forms, purchase forms, sales forms, and accounting forms. Forms can be (*i*) *Single copy forms*, which are complete in themselves and usually become the source documents; and (*ii*) *Multiple copy forms*, which are made in duplicate or triplicate (or even more copies can be had) and duplicate copies are used to transmit information or serve the functions of providing additional records.

Office forms can also be (*i*) *Outsides contract forms*, which are sent to customers, creditors and other persons outside the business with whom a firm does business, for example, sales invoices, cheques, and purchase orders, etc., and (*ii*) *Internal office forms* which are received or used by the employees of the business, for example, memorandum forms, accounting records and report forms.

Office forms can be: (*i*) *EDP Forms*, which are used on computers and other data processing machines; and (*ii*) *Non—EDP Forms*, which are not used his EDP but are otherwise used on typewriters or to write in hand, etc.

Need for Office Forms

Modern business depend much upon record. "A record is any

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written data that is made for possible future use." Forms are needed togather and preserve information for present and future use. Need for office forms arises as they serve the following *purposes*:

1. **Gathering and communicating information.** They make clear what information must be gathered and then communicated to perform different tasks.

2. **Providing specific location.** They provide a specific location for each item of information needed; and thus the work of data entry, processing and reference becomes easy.

3. **Elimination of recopying.** They eliminate the need for recopying repetitive or standard information, thus saving much time and money.

4. **Using multiple copies.** They make easy the use of multiple copies. This helps in simplifying procedures.

5. **Identification of records.** They help to identify records and facilitate filing for future reference.

Advantages of Office Forms

As we have already stated that forms are an essential feature of a modern business organisation. They are useful in many ways, chief of which are:

1. **Preservation of records.** Forms help to preserve records of business for filing and future reference.

2. **Aid to office systems and routines.** Forms aid office systems and routines. No office system can afford to function smoothly without them.

3. **Aid to planning.** Since forms preserve records, they aid the organisation in better planning.

4. **Better customer service.** Customers can be served better if proper forms exist since their records can be preserved with greater ease.

5. **Saving in time.** They save time as they eliminate the need for recopying repetitive or standard information and thus prove economical in the long-run.

6. **Better human relations.** Good forms also promote better human relations in the organisation. The labour is assured of proper record-keeping of their work, wages, bonuses and retirement benefits, etc.

7. **Better service to shareholders and creditors.** Good forms make for better service to shareholders and creditors. In fact they are the soul of the secretarial function.

8. **Goodwill.** Good forms also help project a good image of the organisation amongst public. They are thus a good investment from the point of view of the organisation.

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FORMS DESIGNING

Importance of Proper Forms Design

Forms should be properly designed on account of the following *reasons*:

1. Well-designed forms promote *efficiency*, while badly designed forms hinder efficiency.

2. A form has a *psychological effect* on people using it; and if it is badly designed, it would cause frustration and fatigue to the user.

3. It is a well-known fact that the cost of a form is always much less than the *cost of labour* spent in completing it. In a badly designed form this cost is bound to increase.

4. Badly designed forms often cause *clerical errors*. Sometimes a single vital error may prove very costly.

5. Badly designed forms can *paralyse a whole system*, especially, if they do not conform to the needs of the system.

6. A badly designed form *adversely affects the goodwill* since it projects a poor image of the organisation before the public.

Principles of Form Designing

Forms must be properly designed to serve the purpose already stated. In designing the forms it is necessary to observe certain principles. They can be summarised as follows:

1. Principle of use. A form should be brought into existence only if there is a purposeful need for the use of that form. The job to be accomplished must be planned first and then the form can be developed. *A form should be used*: (*a*) If something is to be recorded as a matter of necessity. (*b*) When certain data are to be recorded repeatedly. These data can be preprinted on every copy of the form in order to save time in forms preparation. (*c*) If it is necessary to have all information recorded in the same place on each copy of the form. This arrangement helps serve as a check on the completeness of the record. (*d*) Where it is desirable to fix responsibility for the work done by providing spaces for signatures of persons who did the work.

2. Principle of standardisation. In order to reduce costs and avoid confusion it is necessary that all forms should be standardised. Standardisation affects mainly their physical arrangement like size, colour, quality of paper used and printing style and consequently affects their efficient handling.

3. Principle of centralised control. The design, use and replacement of office forms should be centrally controlled in order to provide

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for coordination and efficiency. In many organisations new forms get added while old outdated useless forms may also remain in existence. This problem can be solved by having centralised control of the forms under one executive (may be the office manager himself in a small organisation) who is responsible for their designing, etc.

4. Principle of systems integration. The forms should be so designed that they are harmoniously adjusted into the systems design. This is necessary so that there is no conflict and also no duplication of the information obtained or given.

5. Principle of multiple use. An effort should be made to keep the number of forms at a minimum level and use a single form for more than one purpose. Such an action helps in having a better control of forms (due to smaller numbers) and economy in their preparation and printing.

Factors Affecting Designing of Forms

Proper designing of forms is crucial to the existence of an organisation as they are tools of office work. They record and communicate information. Badly designed forms are often responsible for clerical errors, increased clerical costs, bad public image and a feeling of frustration amongst the office staff. It is thus necessary that they should be properly designed. In designing the forms, it is necessary to consider the following factors:

1. Forms should suit the purpose. Forms should be so designed that they suit well to the purpose for which they are meant. Of course, their common aim is to make clerical operations easy, but it would be desirable to define the specific purpose for which a form has been designed.

2. Ease in usage. The forms should be so designed that they are easy to use. For example, if a form is to be used on a typewriter, spacing between lines should be such that adjustment in typewriter is avoided when going from one line to the other. Normally typewriting spacing is twelve lines to 5 centimetres. Similarly where forms are to be used on accounting machines or computers, they should be similarly designed.

3. Simplicity. Needless to say simplicity of a form facilitates its use. Simplicity makes the work of the user easy. It can allow for quick completion. Also when completed forms are consulted, information can be easily understood and extracted. However, simplicity cannot be at the cost of purpose for which a form is meant. Simplicity implies clear column headings, adequate space for numbering and simple language of instructions for use.

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SOME FORMS DESIGNS

Form for Reporting Cash

	Copy for
	Managing Director
	Secretary
	Cashier
	Chief Accountant

Date

Report of Cash

Cash	To-day	Month to Date
Received		
Disbursed		

Location of Funds

City	Bank	Amount of Deposit
New Delhi	Bank of India, United Commercial Bank	
Bombay	State Bank of India, Bank of India	
Calcutta	State Bank of India, United Commercial Bank	
	Total—Cash in Banks	
	Total—Cash on Hand	
	Petty Cash Funds	
	Grand Total	

Memo

Accounting Department

AC—130

By

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INVOICE FORM

Telex: 286 N.D. **INVOICE** Telephones: 271221 271222

Beta Systems Private Ltd.
8, Asaf Ali Road, New Delhi-1

Sold to _____

_____

_____

Shipped to _____

_____

_____

Invoice No. _____

Customers No. _____

Quantity	Description	Stock No.	List or Price Rate		Amount	
			Rs.	P.	Rs.	P.

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4. Proper size. It is necessary to have a proper size of a form. The size, however, will be affected by the purpose for which it is needed and the size of papers to be used for printing the form. Following *factors* are to be considered in deciding the size: (*a*) Columns should be wide enough to allow for the entries to be made; and (*b*) Description to be entered at the top and the space needed for it. It is good if the standard size of a form is fixed after taking into account the sizes of papers available in the market so that wastage of paper is avoided while cutting.

5. Titling and numbering. Every form should have a title or number. In practice, usually both these are given to a form. The title should be short and simple and should be clearly printed at the top. The number of the form is printed to simplify the work of store-keeping of the form. It should be printed in a way that it commands immediate attention.

6. Proper printing. The printing of the forms should be done properly. The printing 'type' to be used will depend upon the purpose. However, an effort should be made to give a neat look to the forms. Also type used in such that forms can be read with ease in natural or artificial light.

7. Ease in punching, scoring and perforating. It is necessary that forms should allow for the operations of punching, scoring and perforating. Holes are to be punched for filing, etc. It is, therefore, necessary that exact specifications should be provided. Scoring implies drawing of a line indicating the place at which a form is to be folded so that the matter on the form is not cut or dimmed. Perforating means punching small holes in a straight line so that some portion of a form is detached. Printers do the work of perforation but the exact place for perforation will have to be indicated by the office.

8. Use of proper type of paper. It is necessary to use the right type of paper for different forms. The type of paper to be used would depend upon factors like: (*a*) length of period of preservation; (*b*) method of handling; (*c*) appearance desired; and (*d*) impression desired (of writing, typing or printing). Simple rules are: longer the preservation period and more frequent handling of forms require better paper. Where forms also go to outsiders appearance should project the image of the organisation. The paper used in such a case should be of better quality.

Designing EDP Forms

The EDP is gaining great popularity in our country. Not only very

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big organisations, but also medium-sized and even smaller organisation have started using EDP. This has added another branch to forms designing. Many features of forms used on the computers are the same as that of the non-EDP forms, *e.g.*, using of carbons, carbon spotting, different colours of paper, etc. However, the EDP forms must have certain other features. The office manager and his aides, and the higher managers should design EDP forms with great care. The following points are worth-noting in this regard:

1. Line and tab *spacing requirements* of EDP forms are different than for the typed or handwritten forms.

2. The requirements of *size* of EDP forms are also different than for the other forms.

3. Typewriters are roller fed, but computer forms are *pin fed* by holes in their edges.

4. An effort should be made to maximise the *use of computer system's printers.* This can be achieved if computer forms are so designed that two, three or even four documents can be printed at the same time by the computer. This can be particularly useful in banks, insurance companies, companies having a large number of customers or government departments with a large number of persons to contact, etc.

5. All computer *forms are "continuous".* It means that they are printed on long uncut rolls of paper and which are perforated between each page.

6. Another problem that must be considered is the problem of *Optical Character Recognition* computer input. The gloss of paper, glare of printing ink used are important from this point of view since the forms are to be read not only by human beings but machines also.

It would also be good to seek the advice of the computer manufacturers or suppliers in designing EDP forms. In fact the limitations of the computer regarding input must be known before they are designed.

FORMS MANAGEMENT AND CONTROL

Process of Forms Control

Forms are a basic factor in office systems in modern business. The functioning of a business depends much on them. To make forms perform the work desired of them, it is necessary that there should be efficient management and control of the forms. The process of forms control involves the following: (*i*) Proper designing of forms; (*ii*) Eliminating or re-designing old and out-dated forms to promote

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efficiency and economy; (*iii*) Controlling forms effectively while they are used which can be attained by appointing a responsible executive (for example, *Forms Supervisor*) or a committee consisting of individuals who have some specialised knowledge of designing and controlling of forms.

Objects of Forms Control and Management

Objects of forms control (or management) are as follows.

1. **To retain and use the necessary forms.** To retain and use only those forms that are necessary for office systems. Too many forms choke the office management process and lower efficiency.

2. **Lowest cost.** To ensure that forms are designed to render the best possible service at the lowest cost at all times.

3. **Easy and cheap reproduction.** To reproduce forms by the most suitable and economical method.

4. **Providing copies.** To provide copies of forms only to those who are required to use them and eliminate waste of time and money. Too many copies, not needed, are a drag on office systems.

5. **Revising old forms.** To study all revised old forms and proposed new forms and whether changes are needed in the light of changes in functioning of the organisation.

6. **Reviewing current utility.** To review from time to time all forms in use to find out their current utility.

7. **Evaluating time needed.** To evaluate forms design it is necessary to find out the time needed to use them so that the benefit derived is more than the cost.

Steps in Forms Control

In order to have an efficient forms control, following steps are recommended to be taken for proper forms control:

1. **Centralisation of forms control.** Centralisation of authority for forms control is to be initiated as the first step. There are *two alternative methods* of centralisation of forms control authority. *One* method is to have a *committee* of individuals possessing adequate knowledge of forms and their control. The other method is to have a "*Forms Supervisor*" who heads the *Forms Control Section*. Where the organisation is huge, a *Forms Control Department* may be installed and an executive may head this department. Whatever be the method of control of forms, it is essential to have centralisation of forms control authority to fix up responsibility for performance.

2. **Preparation of forms register.** Forms Control Section should obtain atleast two copies of each form used in every department and

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every section of the organisation. These forms are made into a Forms Register or pasted into a Forms Book. These forms should also be listed separately along with the Forms Book.

3. Obtaining list of office routines. Office forms have close relationship with the office systems and routines. It is necessary for Forms Control Section to obtain a list of office routines. On obtaining the list of office routines, it is necessary that forms should be classified, marked and numbered.

4. Investigation and analysis. All forms now should be investigated and analysed to see if any of them can be eliminated, combined with others or improved.

5. Printing and reproduction of forms. Once a form has been adopted, it is necessary to arrange for its printing or reproduction. It may be printed outside the organisation or may be reproduced in the organisation through stencil or other duplication and reproduction methods. The decision regarding its printing outside or reproduction within the organisation would be taken after considering factors like its requirements, size and specifications, etc. The concerned departmental heads shall also be consulted. If it is to be printed by outside printers, approval of the office manager would be taken before order of printing is placed with the outside printers.

6. Reorganisation of forms. After investigation and analysis, forms are to be reorganised. This may mean that forms not needed are dropped; and basic information relevant to different forms is printed on each one of them.

7. Standardisation. Lastly it is necessary to have standardisation, if the situation demands. Standardisation is the process where the size, quality, and colour of paper used in all forms is standardised to reduce costs and confusion. Forms control implies that standardisation must be affected.

Number of Forms to be Produced or Ordered at One Time

It is necessary to order the reproduction or printing of forms in right quantity on account of the following reasons: (*i*) *To maintain an even flow* of forms at all times so that the organisation does not suffer in terms of efficiency. (*ii*) *To avoid unnecessary investment* in procuring or producing forms which are not to be used immediately. (*iii*) *To effect economy through bulk procurement* of forms used most commonly and in large quantities. (*iv*) *To avoid unnecessary wastage* when a form becomes outdated and is to be changed.

Factors affecting quantity of forms to be ordered. Following factors are to be considered while deciding the quantity of forms to be

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ordered:

(*i*) Past experience about the quantity consumed;
(*ii*) Investment to be made for bulk order;
(*iii*) Expected cost saving;
(*iv*) Risk of changes in a form;
(*v*) Cost of storage;
(*vi*) Interest lost on capital invested in forms; and
(*vii*) Lead-time needed for getting supplies.

In other words, it is necessary to carry out a *cost-benefit analysis* in terms of the benefit derived through placing orders in bulk is to be considered against loss of interest on capital invested and extra cost of storage of forms. For example, if the interest lost and extra cost of storage total 10 per cent, the saving affected through bulk ordering should not be less than 10 per cent. Following formula may be used to determine the standard quantity to be ordered:

$$EOQ = \sqrt{\frac{2AS}{iC}}$$

where EOQ is the economic order quantity

A is the normal used for a given period (say a week, a month, etc.)

S is the cost of ordering every order.

C is the invoice cost of each form.

i is the carrying cost of forms expressed as a ratio of the invoice price of forms.

Form Sets

It is convenient to use sets of form to prepare more than one copy of a document. In this way multiple copies can be made by a single writing method. The sets of forms can be constructed in the following ways:[1]

1. Loose sheets put into sets;
2. Single sheet perforated and folded;
3. Sets in gangs;
4. Sets in books or pads;
5. Unit sets; and
6. Continuous sets.

1. Loose sheets put into sets method. Under this method the office typist or clerk assembles and jogs the forms and carbon paper into

[1]Hermann, Irvin A., *Office Methods, Systems and Procedures*, Ronald Press, New York.

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place before typing or writing. The method is simple and hence used quite commonly. However, it has certain drawbacks: (*a*) It is *time-consuming* as it requires the operator to do preparatory work before forms set is put together. (*b*) If the carbon papers are not used with care, *copies may be illegible.* Also use of carbon papers beyond a limit may not give the required number of copies. Besides, the typist may not choose the correct carbon paper.

Many time-saving devices can, however, be combined with this method of forms set construction. For example, in correspondence typing the carbon paper and the second sheets may be pre-collated and made easily available to the typist. Another method may be that the second sheets of a particular colour are put into pads of 100 sheets (sometimes less or more) with one time carbon interleaved; or the second sheet and the carbon paper are glued at the bottom.

2. Single sheet perforated and folded method. Duplicate or triplicate form sets can be made by folding perforating or scoring single sheet of paper.

3. Sets in gangs method. The term 'gang' means that a group of two or more identical forms are printed on a single sheet and are separated by perforations. These gang sheets may be in loose form but are often bound into pads or collated and glued into *unit sets.* All the sheets may be collated and perforated into gangs, or the record copies may not be perforated and may be used as a register.

4. Sets in pads or books method. Quit often forms of the same type or different forms comprising a set are padded in such a way that all the copies are perfectly aligned. The forms are glued on the side, edge or top. The carbon is usually inserted at the time of its use and the sheets are removed after use. A strip of cloth is also used to hold the sheets firmly in the set. Sometimes the forms are bound in books. But the method of putting forms in pads is better since in the bound book, record copies look untidy after original sheets have been removed. Moreover, the used books require more space. Where the forms are in pads, the record copies can be put in a lever file from where they can be got bound when their number reaches 100 or so.

To derive the maximum benefit from this method of form set preparation, it is desirable to keep the collating of sheets of different colours to the minimum. Besides, the carbon copies can be quite easily distinguished from the original copy.

5. Unit sets. Under this method variable lengths and breadths of the respective sheets in the set are used. This method of form set construction is economical where the quantity used is small and conti-

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nuous forms happen to be costly. Unit sets can be constructed in two ways:

(*a*) *Unit blocked sets* can be made of sheets of the same size or unequal size. Under this arrangement, individual forms are collated into sets, and a single lot of sets is placed in a gluing rack and rubber padding cement is applied to the top (or bottom) edge to hold the sheets firmly in their place. Then the sets are separated with the help of a paper-cutter.

(*b*) The other alternative method is the *snap sets method.* Under this method sets are prepared by having a perforated stub portion holding the sheets together. The process facilitates easy separation of copies and removal of carbon paper. One-time carbon is inserted in the printed sets which are prepared by the continuous form method and the sets are cut into units.

The unit set method has the following *features*: (*i*) Papers of different colours and printed in different colours can be used (*ii*) Papers of different weight and quality can be combined. (*iii*) Narrow or wide forms can be combined in the same set. (*iv*) Individual copies of the set can be removed from the centre of the set with ease. (*v*) Parts of a set can be separated from each other and each section remains intact.

6. Continuous sets or continuous stationery. Continuous sets, also called continuous stationery, are discussed in the following paragraphs.

The question of continuous stationery is closely linked with the use of office forms. Continuous stationery can be defined as "*a device whereby office forms are usually divided from one another by perforations. . . .*" The system implies that various office forms are not bound in a book or pad form, where the forms are torn off from the pad and interleaved with carbon paper by the typist for making out the desired number of copies. This means that the time taken by the typist for putting the forms on the typewriter is long. To eliminate this, continuous stationery is used. Several copies are obtained by the use of copying methods without going through the process of baring off forms and inserting carbon paper. In our country, continuous stationery concept has not gained much popularity except in some very limited spheres.

Different types of continuous stationery. There are three basic types of continuous stationery which can be adopted when forms are designed and produced. They are:

(*i*) Roll stationery;

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(*ii*) Interfold stationery; and

(*iii*) Fanfold stationery.

(*i*) *Roll stationery.* It is that type of continuous stationery in which *forms are printed in a continuous roll.* Forms printed on a teleprinter, an adding machine, a cash register, etc., are of this type. There are no perforations and the forms are torn off against a metal cutting edge, when the message or amount is typed.

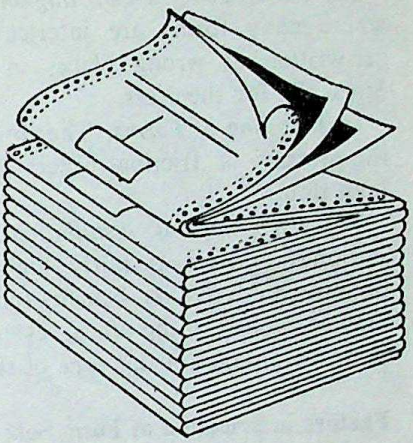

FIG. 15.1. Marginal punched interfold stationery, carbon interleaved.

(*ii*) *Interfold stationery.* It is the type of continuous stationery where *forms are perforated and the stationery is interleaved and folded in "concertina" fashion.* Hence the name "Platpack" is also used for this type of stationery.

(*iii*) *Fanfold stationery.* It is that type of continuous stationery where *separate copies of the forms are joined together not only end to end but also side to side.* The forms are divided from one another horizontally as well as vertically. If a number of sets of fanfold stationery are pulled out, they open up in the form of a fan, hence the name. This type of continuous stationery is useful where (*a*) forms of different widths are incorporated in a set, and (*b*) pre-punching of filing holes prevents the use of *sprocket* feeding.

Advantages of continuous stationery. It offers the following two important advantages:

(*i*) *Saving in time and money.* The greatest advantage of continuous stationery is the saving in time that is affected. Where multiple copies of forms in pads are to be made, the time taken for tearing off, inserting carbons for putting on the typewriter is exceptionally long. These processes are avoided and thus greater efficiency is assured. Office costs, therefore, decline.

(*ii*) *Lesser fatigue.* The user also incurs less fatigue. He has not to go through the process of tearing, interleaving, etc. Thus the work output increases.

Disadvantages or drawbacks of continuous stationery. Cantinuous stationery suffers from the following drawbacks:

(*i*) *Difficulty in making corrections and alterations.* Corrections and alteration, cannot be made with ease, especially where many copies

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of a set have been prepared.

(*ii*) *Forms going out of alignment.* Forms also go out of alignment where many forms are interleaved with carbon papers. The figures get written at wrong places in the copies and it creates problems, especially for the users.

(*iii*) *Soiling of Forms.* The forms also get soiled sometimes due to the pressure of friction rollers and thus cannot be preserved for a long time.

(*iv*) *High cost of installation.* Cost of installation of continuous stationesy system is fairly high and, therefore, only larger undertakings can derive its benefits fully. However, with change in technology as applied to the office, even smaller organisations may secure some advantages of this type of stationery.

Factors in Selection of Form Sets

One or the other kind of form sets can be used by an organisation and they can also be suitably modified to suit the specific needs of the organisation. It is advisable to consider the following factors before a form set is selected.

1. Number of copies needed;
2. Size of each copy in a particular set;
3. Filing method adopted for each copy;
4. Weight and quality of paper suitable for each copy;
5. Value of coloured paper;
6. Method of writing (machine or long-hand);
7. Type of carbon paper needed;
8. Method of inserting and removing the carbon paper;
9. Method of separating and sorting of copies; and
10. Variable information printed on every copy.

Identifying Copies of Manifold Forms

Quite often it becomes necessary that multiple copies of some forms be designed in such a manner that each copy is distinguished easily from others, identified quickly and accurately sorted for despatch or distribution. One or more of the following ways can be used to facilitate this task:

(*a*) Use of different colours of papers;

(*b*) Name or heading of the copy is printed in a conspicuous or prominent place;

(*c*) A number in bold type may be printed at upper or lower right corner; and

(*d*) Each copy may be printed in different colours of ink.

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Method (*a*) of using different colours of paper is more economical than others on short print-runs, *i.e.*, where the number of copies needed is small. The other three methods are more economical where print-runs are large. These different identification methods, however, involve additional outlay. For example, coloured paper is costlier than the white paper. Printing of different numbers, signs, symbols, and names also requires additional processing (hence costlier). Similarly use of different colours means wash up of the machine for each colour. Considering the above factors, it is necessary to balance the two factors of additional cost and the extra benefit that may result due to classification of copies. Taking an example of a form set having a few copies, in this case carbon copies may serve the purpose since they may be easily distinguishable from the original.

Simplification of Paper Work: Rational Use of Forms[1]

Simplification of paper work can be achieved through rational use of forms. This results in economy and greater efficiency. Following *suggestions* are made in this regard:

1. **Pre-punching.** All forms excepting letter heads should be pre-punched at the printing stage. In this way, punching operation would be eliminated both in the office of origin and the receiving office. Pre-punching results in saving of time, relieves the filing assistant of going through the routine drudgery of punching numerous papers, and also enables the work of filing to be kept uptodate.

2. **Printing.** Horizontal printing of forms should be avoided. They should be printed vertically.

3. **Use of pads.** Pad form should be used for numbered forms in place of the book form, which would look ugly after use.

4. **Printing of lines.** Where forms are to be filled by hand, they should be lined at the time of printing. Those forms which are to be typed should not be lined. Precaution should be taken that spacing and line arrangements are such that the typist has not to realign.

5. **Use of top space.** Usual top space of 5 cms should not be wasted and the printing must be done right from the top.

6. **Treatment of record copies.** Record copies should go to a lever file, and bound in a book as soon as their number reaches 100 or so.

7. **Sizes of letter heads.** As far as possible, there should not be

[1] Atthreya N.H. and Others, *Ideas that Save*, M.M.C. School of Management, Bombay.

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more than two sizes of letter heads, viz., 14 cm × 22 cm and 28 cm × 22 cm. Thus they will require only one size of envelope.

8. Elimination of multiple forms. If possible, multiple forms should be eliminated since it would save in printing costs, etc. For example, only one type of form may be devised and used for different types of orders, say, "Rush Orders", "Supplementary Orders" and "Special Orders", etc.

9. Own printing of government forms. Where the business operations are large, it may be economical to get the Government forms printed instead of obtaining them from the relevant Government department. It is thus possible to incorporate in the form necessary details like the name of the company, its address and other information of a repetitive nature. For example, Forwarding Note forms (issued by the Railways), Bill of Entry for Home Consumption and forms of acknowledgement due (issued by the Post Office) may be printed. Although own printing of Government forms requires initial cost of printing, yet it offers the benefit of constant supply of forms without going through the time-consuming process of acquiring them from the relevant Government departments.

QUESTIONS

1. "Forms are the basic tools of office operations." Discuss.
2. "Forms are the tools of all office works." Comment on this statement explaining the importance of office forms in the efficient and economical performance of office work.
3. What are office forms? What are its different types.
4. What is mean by office forms? What is their utility?
5. Discuss the significance of office forms. What are the principles of forms designing?
6. You are the Manager responsible for all aspects of office management in a medium-sized but rapidly growing company. You want to rationalize forms designing. How would you achieve it? What factors and principles would you consider in designing new forms and re-designing old forms.
7. "It is necessary to have forms control." Comment on this statement by considering the object of forms control. Also state the steps in forms control.
8. What is meant by continuous stationery? What are its different types? State its advantages and disadvantages.
9. As the office manager, how would you ensure the rational use of forms in the office.

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Chapter 16

COMMUNICATION

THE American Society of Training Directors defines good communication "as the inter-change of thought or information to bring about mutual understanding and confidence or good human relations." Newman and Summer[1] define communication as "an exchange of facts, ideas, opinions or emotions by two or more persons." Communication thus involves a systematic and continuing process of telling, listening and understanding. Communication is a bridge of meaning. Communication thus forms the basis of understanding between the members of the organisation. *Effective communication* is one where a thing is understood in the sense in which it has been communicated. Barnard was the first amongst the leading authorities to give serious thought to communication.

INTERNAL COMMUNICATION

In the office, effective internal communication is fundamental to its existence. Internal communication, also called inter-communication, is a major function of the office. It is this inter-communication that keeps the organisation going.

Importance of Internal Communication in the Office

Internal communication in the office is very important due to the following reasons:

1. **Communication and coordination.** The process of coordination in the organisation will produce no results unless effective communication takes place. We know that coordination is a basic function of management without which an organisation cannot hope to exist for long.

2. **Communication and control.** Control function is a basic manage-

[1]Newman, William H. and Charles E. Summer, Jr., *The Process of Management*, Indian Edition, Prentice-Hall of India Pvt. Ltd.. New Delhi.

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ment function which cannot be exercised without proper internal communication in the office. Goals and targets are first communicated to the lower layers of the organisation and then performance is communicated to higher management.

3. Communication and office systems and routines. Communication in the office is the heart and soul of office systems and routines. They would fail to work without effective communication within the body of the office.

4. Communication and upward, downward and crosswise flow of information. Two-way communication is essential for flow of information from the top to the bottom and from the bottom to the top of the organisation. Also it is essential to have crosswise or horizontal flow of information with a view to cut short delays in communicating.

5. Communication and motivation. The office workers are to be motivated to work. Internal communication thus serves as the vehicle to motivate right from the time that the employee joins an organisation upto the time that he leaves it.

6. Need for competitive information. Modern business is highly competitive in nature. Lot of information is gathered in the office to meet the challenge of competition. Such information is useful only when it is properly transmitted to the right people for proper assessment of the state of competition so that the desired steps are taken to meet the challenges of competition.

7. Projects public image.[1] Good communication ultimately helps project a good image in the eyes of the public. Good communication is another name for good *public relations*. Good public relations promote the interests of an enterprise.

Characteristics of a Good System of Internal Communication

Internal communication system should be such which maximises the efficiency of the setup. In order to achieve this, therefore, it must have certain characteristics which are summarised below:

1. Simplicity and economy. The system should be simple and cheap to introduce and run. These two factors shall be considered with reference to the organisational goals and policies.

2. Clarity. The system should be such through which communication is clear. Clarity is basic to inter-communication. If the system does not make messages clear when they are forwarded or sent back,

[1]Koontz and O'Donnell, *Management*, 6th Edition (1976), McGraw-Hill, International Student Edition.

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the system will fail in its objective.

3. Attention. System of internal communication should be such that a communication attracts the full attention of the receiver immediately on its receipt. Even if the communication is simple yet it will be useless if the receiver does not pay any attention to it.

4. Integrity. The communication system should preserve the basic integrity of the organisation, *i.e.*, the communication must pass through the well-defined channels provided in the organisation. The communication system should not allow for the passing of communication to the ultimate employees over the heads of subordinate managers in the office who happen to direct and supervise them.

5. Use of Informal Organisation. Although formal channels are used yet they do not always get the best results. The communication system should not impose any restriction on the informal organisation. In fact, the communication system must recognise the existence of informal organisation within the office organisation. All the leading authorities on management recognise "grapevine" as one of the most important means of communication.[1]

6. Avoiding information overload. Too much information flows in a large modern organisation. Similarly too much information gets generated in an organisation. It is necessary to communicate only that information which is needed for a given purpose. It is also essential that no desired details about facts and data should be missed by the communicator.

Types of Communication

Classification of communication can be done on the basis of means used, or according to direction, or on the basis of relationships.

On the Basis of Means Used

(*i*) *Written communication* is one which is in writing. It may take the shape of a letter, circular, manual, bulletin, office memo, etc. Written communications have certain *advantages:* (*a*) they can be retained as legal records and reference sources; (*b*) they are carefully formulated; and (*c*) they can sometimes save time and money. However, such communications have their own *drawbacks:* (*a*) they are expensive; (*b*) suffer from the sender's bad language (if his expression is poor); and (*c*) sometimes

[1]Grapevine to be equated with informal organisation. See keith Davis, *Management Communication and the Grapevine in Communication, Organisation,* Penguin, (*Ed.* 8 Porter Roberts).

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they delay decisions which can prove very costly to the organisation.

(*ii*) *Oral communication* is through the spoken word. It may be a face-to-face communication or through telephone or some other mechanical device. Oral communications are excellent for speedy interchange of ideas. However, they too suffer from certain drawbacks. The receiver may fail to ask questions and may not get a clear-cut idea. Oral communication is also very costly where group spends hours of their precious time in discussion and committees.

On the Basis of Relationships

(*i*) *Formal communication* is the transmission of direction or information in the formal organisation structure. Every individual communicates only with his subordinates directly.

(*ii*) *Informal communication* can be defined as the transmission of messages between members of a group on the basis of informal relations and understanding among people at the same or different level and not on the basis of the formal relations as given in the organisational structure.

According to Direction

(*i*) *Upward communication* denotes the flow of information from the lower level to the higher level, *i.e.*, from the subordinates to the superiors in the organisation. Such communications are summaries of suggestions, complaints, grievances and reports, etc.

(*ii*) *Downward communication* is the flow of information through the organisation structure level by level, *i.e.*, from higher level to the lower level. Objectives, plans, manuals, instructions, circulars, etc., belong to this type.

(*iii*) *Crosswise or horizontal communication* denotes that information flows horizontally between personnel in one division and personnel of equal, lower or superior status in other divisions.

ORAL COMMUNICATION

Oral communication takes place between different persons in one of the two ways: (*i*) face-to-face conversation, and (*ii*) through use of mechanical devices.

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Face-to-Face Conversation

Face-to-face conversation is a method of communicating personally. It is, therefore, a method in which the giver and receiver of message face each other. This still remains the most frequently used means of communication. There are certain organisations in which this form of oral communication plays a dominant role. Louis A. Allen[1] points out that "most companies agree that people listen and understand better if new information is imparted to them by their boss on the job."

Advantages. Face-to-face conversation offers a number of advantages which are as follows:

(*i*) Face-to-face communication allows for a *personal approach* and hence matters can be talked over and differences resolved.

(*ii*) It is also a suitable type of communication where *confidential matters* are involved.

(*iii*) Oral communication is *immediate* and oral communication also helps in projecting the urgency of the matter.

(*iv*) As Louis A. Allen points out, face-to-face conversation gives the communication the *stamp of authority* since the boss himself explains problems to his subordinates.

(*v*) It is also more *flexible*. Decisions can be modified on the spot and without delay.

(*vi*) Face-to-face conversation also allows the employees to know their relation with their own jobs and also the organisation which they serve. This takes care of the *ego aspect* of an employee's behaviour.

Disadvantages. However, face-to-face conversation method has its own disadvantages which are as follows:

(*i*) This type of communication is *unfit to convey plans* and policy decisions requiring explanations.

(*ii*) On many occasions face-to-face conversation tends to be *loose* and *vague* and thus the message may lose its character.

(*iii*) Face-to-face communication also necessitates *constant movement* back and forth from one's "seat". Thus work output is bound to be low.

(*iv*) Face-to-face communication may be a total failure where a certain *information is to be transmitted to various parts* of an organisation and at different levels, which are not located within one building or at one place.

[1]Allen, Louis A., *Management and Organisation*, McGraw-Hill, International Student Edition.

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Use of Mechanical Devices for Oral Communication

We have seen that face-to-face conversation has its own limitation as to range and effectiveness. In order to carry on effective oral communication in the office, mechanical devices of various types, shapes and designe are used for oral communication. These devices are discussed below:

1. **Staff location systems.** The mechanical devices used are bells, buzzers, lights, public address system and wireless call system. In our offices, bells and buzzers are used most commonly. They are used to call a messenger or a subordinate who may then be given the message or work. Thus communication takes place later. Where organisations are large or the situation so demands, public address system is used to call people. In our country such a system is used mainly on railway stations, at bus stations, exhibitions, schools and large factories. The chief *drawback* of the public address system is that it is a very noisy system and disturbs every worker. Wireless call system is not at all common in our country. Only the police in bigger towns is using it. Each member of the staff is carrying a wireless set through which messages are relayed. It is an expensive system.

2. **Speaking tubes.** The method implies the use of metallic plastic or rubber tubes. Tubes connect different work-rooms through which executives can talk to each other or their staff. The method is very cheap to instal and does not involve any cost in its running. The method is rarely used in our country. In the West, the method stands discarded because of the use of mechanical devices. The method has a number of *drawbacks*, chief of which are: (*i*) *Limited range*. Speaking tubes have a very limited range. The voice disintegrates and becomes ununderstandable over long distances. Thus speaking tubes are useless in large organisations. (*ii*) *Unhygienic*. Speaking tubes are also unhygienic because communicable diseases may be spread through them.

3. **Telephone** Since the invention of the telephone, the concept of communication—external as well as internal—has been revolutionised. Telephone can be described as the kingpin of communication in modern business. In our country, telephone is a growing communication tool. All sizes of organisations make use of this gadget. The volume and intensity of its usage depends upon the nature of business, the size of the organisation and the attitude of the organisation to rely on telephone as a means of communication. It would be difficult to classify telephone as purely internal means or external means of communications. Most of the telephone systems combine

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internal connections. Let us consider the various telephone systems which are quite popular in our country. They are:

(*i*) *Direct exchange line.* Under this system, there is one receiver to one exchange line. Since there is only one set, it is used as a means for external communication alone.

(*ii*) *Direct exchange line with extensions.* As the business expands, its need for telephone connections may expand. Such a situation can be tackled with the help of extension system. Under this system, telephone is provided by the Posts and Telegraphs Department. A telephone may be provided with one to three extensions. The main line and the extensions can be used for external communication as well as internal communication. This system offers many advantages to a small organisation. The system is cheap to instal and run. The Post Office makes a modest additional charge for providing extensions and the additional rental for these extensions is reasonable. However, the greatest drawback of the method is that it is unsuitable for a large organisation whose needs for inter-communication are large. Besides, the system depends on the availability of telephone connections in the local telephone exchange. In our country, in bigger towns, telephone connections are not easy to get because of the long waiting list. Another drawback is the dependence of the organisation on outside agency for repairs of faults. Repairs may get delayed which may prove costly for the organisation.

(*iii*) *Private branch exchange* (*PBX*) *system.* The Posts and Telegraphs Department also provides for a PBX (Private Branch Exchange) system which can be installed in offices with a view to facilitate external and internal communication. Under this system an operator has to sit by the side of the switchboard who helps in providing connections to various callers. The operator acts as the exchange. All the internal as well as the external calls are handled by the operator. This system has been quite popular in our country with the Government departments, hospital, universities and even commercial organisations. The efficiency of the system depends much upon the efficiency of the operator. Even the best operator would take some 30-40 seconds to put a call through. Besides, some delays may take place when the operator is busy providing calls to insiders or outsiders. The efficiency of the system thus depends much on the efficiency of the operator of the switch board. The system is suitable for smaller and medium-sized organisations where operations are not many and instant connections for communications are not demanded.

(*iv*) *Private automatic branch exchange* (*PABX*) *system.* This sys-

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tem is an improvement over the PBX system discussed above. The system is again installed with the help of the Posts and Telegraphs Department. The equipment is rented out by the department. The number of telephone connections for inter-communication would, on the one hand, depend upon the equipment made available by the Posts and Telegraphs Department and, on the other, the needs of the organisation. Under this system, the need for the internal exchange is eliminated. The internal communication is possible by dialling the relevant internal phone number. The external communication is routed through the operator. However, it is also possible to have a completely private automatic branch exchange in which external telephone numbers can be obtained by first dialling a code number. This reduces the work of the operator. The outsiders, however, get different internal numbers through the internal exchange. Such a system is fast replacing the PBX system in the government departments and large business organisations. The system eliminates the disadvantages of the manually operated branch exchange. The intef-communication can be fast, keeping pace with the needs of the organisation

(*v*) *Private exchange system.* Such a system is available in the UK and other countries and to a limted extent in our country, in which 10 to 600 lines are available for inter-communication. Such a system is automatic internal exchange system in which the caller can get the desired number by just dialling the number. This system is ideal for a large organisation.

(*vi*) *Inter-com system.* The inter-communication system, called inter-com in brief, is becoming very popular in our country. Many types of inter-com systems are available upto a maximum of 40 lines. The system uses multicore cable throughout the installation so that the relevant internal number can be obtained directly. The system is not connected with the external telephone system, although this is possible. Inter-com system is to be installed by the organisation concerned.

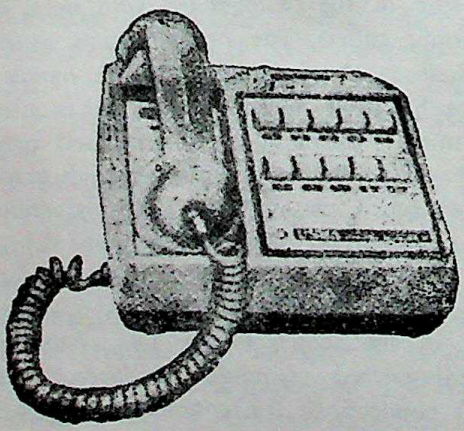

FIG. 16.1. The Inter-com.

The inter-com system has many outstanding *features*:

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(*a*) It provides a large number of lines without burdening the external telephone lines. They are kept free for executives. (*b*) It can be installed as and when it is needed. No sanction is needed from the Posts and Telegraphs Department. (*c*) It has low running cost as the staff does not misuse the external lines. Such a system, however, lacks secrecy. Conversation between two individuals over the inter-com system can be overheard by an individual dialling the busy number. Thus "listening-in" may prove dangerous in any organisation because certain confidential types of inter-communications need complete secrecy. In recent years, inter-com systems are being manufactured which ensure secrecy and "listening-in" is not possible. Such systems are also now manufactured in our country.

(*vii*) *Executive or house telephone system.* In essence, this system is the same as the inter-com system. Under this system, the executive and subordinates have direct access to each other. Besides, an executive may have direct and simultaneous connection with one or more points. This innovation allows a person to speak to many people at the same time as if he is in a conference. This system does not require switchboard, and the desired number (or numbers) are obtained by pressing buttons or operating keys. The telephones are usually fitted with loud speakers which allow persons to speak without holding the earphone and microphone. Amplifying equipment also allows a person to speak from a distance of upto 15 feet of the instruments. Such a system has proved highly beneficial in large organisations where joint consultations are a regular feature of management systems.

(*viii*) *Radio telephones.* Radio telephones are now increasingly used in our country in metropolitan cities to send and receive oral messages. Some select spots and moving vehicles have wireless sets with the government allotted frequencies. The messages are passed either way, *i.e.*, from the "head-quarters" to the specific vehicle and back. Radio telephones are used by the police force. In the West radio telephones are also used for business purposes.

(*ix*) *Telephone recording and answering.* Under this system the telephone is fitted with a recording machine which requests the caller to leave the message and records the external incoming calls in the absence of the receiver himself. This system has yet to come to our country. The system offers the great advantage that calls can be recorded without the physical presence of the executive or his subordinate. Such a system has particularly proved useful in those institutions where the call has come from long distance from customers and salesmen on tour who can make calls at cheap rates during off-peak hours.

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4. Dictating machines. The concept of dictating machines in not common in our country. In the last few years, however, dictating machines have made an appearance on the business scene. As executive time is becoming more and more costly, dictating machines are bound to become more popular. They are being manufactured in the country and have the features of fairly advanced technology in the field. They are now a vital component of offices in the West. Dictating machines are available in various sizes and designs. They are in essence like tape-recorders. They are put to various uses in the course of the functioning of the office. The message is recorded and the tape is sent to the person concerned which is played back. *Some of their important uses in the office are*: (*i*) The executive "dictates" in the absence of the secretaries who play back the message on the machines and do the desired work of typing or relaying of oral messages to the persons concerned in the organisation. (*ii*) The salesmen on tour send back "taped" reports to the office for necessary action. (*iii*) The proceedings of meetings and conferences are also recorded by these machines. Such a record proves useful in case certain points prove controversial. (*iv*) The head of a business organisation may also get his conversation taped while meeting the Press. The tape can be played back to know as to what has been said about the business in the conference.

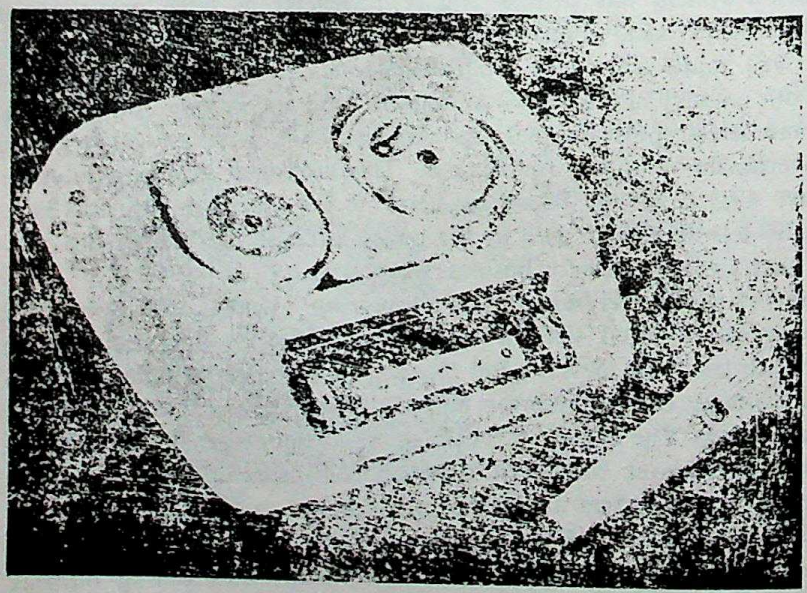

FIG. 16.2. Dictating machine using magnetically coated plastic tape.

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Advantages of dictating machines. The dictating machines, although not used in our country, are very useful. It would be, therefore, worthwhile to try them even in our own offices. Some of their important advantages, are as follows: (*i*) *Economy.* This is the greatest advantage of a dictating machine. Only the presence of the dictator is needed and only his time is taken. The typist can concentrate on typing work. (*ii*) *Convenience of time.* The dictator has the advantage of dictating a message at his convenience. He is not bound to a time schedule. (*iii*) *Convenience of place.* The dictator may dictate at any place. He may dictate the message at home or in a car or a train and carry it to the office for necessary action. (*iv*) *Optimum use of the typing pool.* The typing pool is put to optimum use. Any typist who is free takes the message and does the work. Thus the typists share the work equally. (*v*) *Saving in trips.* The secretaries or stenos do not have to run to different places to take down notes or messages. This also results in the saving of valuable time.

Disadvantages of dictating machines. The dictating machines have some disadvantages too, chief of which are: (*i*) *Loss of personal touch.* The steno or secretary loses personal touch with the executives concerned. Thus on the psychological front, there is a great loss. Personal contact assures better motivation which results in a better work-force. (*ii*) *Overloading.* The secretarial staff also gets overloaded. The individual capacity of typists is not taken into account.

WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

Written word is a very respected object. We cannot think of any organisation functioning without its presence. As against oral communication, written communication offers a number of advantages which are summarised as follows:

(*i*) *Exactness.* Written messages are bound to be exact. There is a well-known saying that writing makes a man perfect. This is so because exactness is a necessary part of writing. One cannot be vague in writing.

(*ii*) *Precision.* Writing also makes it necessary for the giver of the message to be precise. Long messages are bound to lose their strength and hence may not achieve the desired objective.

(*ii*) *Wide coverage.* Written communication can have the widest possible coverage. Messages can be prepared anywhere and then sent out to any part of the world. There are, therefore, no geographical limitations.

(*iv*) *Personal presence not needed.* Oral communication, especially

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face-to-face conversation, requires the physical presence of different parties at the same place or different places at the same time. But it is not so in the case of written communication, The sender and the receiver of messages are not required to be present at a certain place or different places at the same time.

(*v*) *Elimination of physical movement.* Some of the means of oral communication involve constant movement in the office. This disturbs the office work continuously.

(*vi*) *Ideal means of conveying plans and policies, etc.* Modern business depends upon a number of managerial functions. The function of preparing plans and targets and laying down policies can be best performed through written communication. Oral communication can, at best, serve as a means to convey explanations and the ideas behind planning and policies, but surely it is a poor means of conveying plans and policies.

Types of Written Communication

Actual delivery of papers: internal messenger and mail services. Written communication, message or a memorandum can be effected through: (*i*) messenger service, or (*ii*) internal mail service.

Messenger service involves the employment of messenger boys or peons who are employed in each department or section; or each executive is provided with the services of a peon who carries the messages to the points to which they are to be sent. In our country this is a very common method. The method has the following *drawbacks.* (*i*) It is a *costly* method as it involves intermittent physical movements of the messenger. (*ii*) The method cannot be of much use where organisation is well spread out.

Internal mail service. This is an improvement over the above system. Under this system the messenger boy or the peon collects the necessary documents, messages, etc. from specified desks or departments and takes them to their destinations at specified regular intervals. Under the method, "in" trays and "out" trays are provided. The papers for attention are put into the "in" tray and once they have been disposed of they are put into "out" tray from where they are picked up for further transmission to their destinations. The method, however, does incorporate the messenger service to cope with urgent messages. This system operates on the lines of postal mail service. The *system can be successful if it incorporates the following features*: (*i*) The *route* for collecting and delivering papers must be well-defined and well-planned to eliminate delays and waste of time. (*ii*) *Checks and balances* should be imposed on the system to check the performance

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of the personnel involved. (*ii*) *Aids to delivery*, like trolleys, bags, etc. must be provided. (*iv*) There should be a *strict regulation of timings* of collection and delivery. If these features are incorporated in the internal mail service system, the results are bound to be good and efficiency of inter-communication system would improve.

Use of Mechanical Devices for Written Communication

Although use of mechanical devices for internal communication within the same premises has not gained much importance in our country, yet they are being increasingly used to link various branches of an organisation. Most of the undermentioned devices are in common use in the West. Some of the more important devices are being discussed below:

1 **Pneumatic tubes.** Pneumatic tubes are quite a popular device in the West for carrying written inter-communication although it is being replaced by conveyor belts. The system is not at all common in our country. Under this system, tubes are laid out in the office connecting various departments. These tubes can be circular or even rectangular depending on the needs of the organisation. Besides, the circumference of the tubes would again depend on the needs of the organisation. Under this system, written messages are put into small plastic containers (called cartridges as well) and these containers are put into pneumatic tubes. These containers are moved to their desired destinations through pneumatic pressure.

Advantages of pneumatic tubes. Pneumatic tubes offer the following advantages: (*i*) They *speed* up work. The movement of papers can be fast because personal delivery of papers, which is time-consuming, is eliminated. (*ii*) Use of pneumatic tubes also leads to *economy*. It is a common experience that savings in costs occur due to the installation of pneumatic tubes.[1]

Disadvantages of pneumatic tubes. Pneumatic tubes are not without their drawbacks, chief of which are: (*i*) They are very *costly to instal.* Thus they can be used by an organisation which has large resources. (*ii*) *Breakdowns* may occur due to blockage of the passage of a tube. Thus it would be necessary to keep an alternative system in readiness to meet such contingencies.

Systems of pneumatic tubes. There are two principal systems of pneumatic tubes: (*i*) the *centralised system*, and (*ii*) the *decentralised*

[1]Terry cites the example of a large aircraft manufacturer whose office was spread over 7 buildings. There was a net annual saving of $ 1,00,000 in salaries to be paid for the purpose of conveying papers (Terry, *op. cit.*)

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system. Under the centralised system, the various documents are sent to a centralised location from where they are sent to their respective destinations. Such a system would mean the delay in delivery of papers at the desired destination. Under the decentralised system, the papers are sent direct to the department concerned. Thus normally two separate tubes are provided: one for the incoming papers and other for the outgoing papers.

2. Conveyors. Conveyors are a necessary part of automation in the West. The idea of belt conveyors has been extended to the office and it has proved extremely useful. Conveyors now form an integral part of the office of a large organisation. Conveyors are employed to move stationery, papers and documents in the office. In the USA and Europe conveyors have been specially designed to do work in the office. The idea of conveyors is yet to gain any recognition in the offices in our country due to cheap human labour available in plenty.

Advantages of conveyors. Conveyors offer a number of advantages, chief of which are: (*i*) *Speed.* The papers can move very fast from one department to another. Thus the efficiency of the organisation can improve. (*ii*) *Economy.* Use of conveyors also results in economy in the salary-bill. The personal messenger services are eliminated.

Disadvantages of conveyors. Although conveyors are used extensively in the West, yet they have certain drawbacks, more important of which are: (*i*) *Costly.* Conveyors are a costly system to instal. Thus its initial outlay can be afforded by a sufficiently big organisation. (*ii*) *Breakdowns.* The system may come to a stop during power failure or through some mechanical fault in the system.

Types of conveyors. Conveyor belts of different types are available. Each of the types has its own uses. Various types of conveyors are as follows:

(*a*) *Horizontal conveyors.* These conveyors are those which move from one end to another on the same floor of the building. A horizontal conveyor may be a belt conveyor which is made of rubber or canvas (or a mixture of both) and is continuously moved by an electric (or fuel oil) motor from one end to the other. There may be one channel for carrying papers or a number of channels to carry sets of papers at the same time. A vertical guide is fixed along the length of the belt to keep the papers in proper position through the process of delivery. *Sandwich belts* are another variety of horizontal belts. In a sandwich belt the papers are sandwiched inbetween two canvas (or rubber) belts that run along together. The sandwich belt can

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carry papers vertically also and can be so laid out that it goes round corners, over aisles, and run adjacent to and across ceilings. The tension is maintained by having a system of pulleys and weights. This also allows the papers to drop automatically at drop-out points along the way. Other types of conveyor systems are the *drag belt* (used mainly by communication firms) and *flat bed* (used mainly by banks and brokerage firms) types.

Another type of horizontal conveyors is the *roller conveyor method* in which papers are put into a metal or plastic container. The container is then placed on the rotating rollers placed side by side all along the length. These rollers are installed in a sloping manner so that the container moves along the rollers due to gravity. When the container reaches its destination, it is picked up from the roller conveyor. Chain and wire conveyors are also used to convey papers. Under this method, papers are attached with clips that are fastened to chains or cables which are supported and guided by split pipes or metal troughs.

(*b*) *Vertical conveyors.* Horizontal conveyors are unfit for carrying documents from one floor to the other. Thus where the office is spread over many floors, vertical conveyors are used. The vertical conveyors run on the same principle on which the horizontal conveyors are run.

Vertical conveyors have the same varieties as that for the horizontal conveyors. Vertical conveyors may be the sandwich belts or chain and wire conveyors. They operate on the same principles as explained for the horizontal conveyors. Vertical life conveyors[1] can also be used to move papers from one floor to another. Papers and documents are placed in trays which move up and down at the rate of up to 16 trays a minute. The trays of papers are received and emptied at the destination automatically or manually. There is a continuous movement of the lift conveyors.

3. Chutes. Chutes are wide channels or pipes, made of metal or wood, which run from a higher level to the lower level in a sloping fashion. In many parts of the West, they are used to drop mail or laundry. Thus papers in an office can be dropped in large bundles from a higher floor to a lower floor. Though the method is cheap yet it lacks the speed and sophistication of the conveyors.

Electronic Devices to Convey Written Communication

Advancement in science has its effects on the methods of communi-

[1]Neuner and Keeling, *op. cit.*

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cation used in the office. Electronic innovations have revolutionised the means of affecting communication. Some rare or completely unknown electronic devices brought about a complete change in the means of internal and external communication. While telephone remains the most important of all links in the chain of communication, other devices have tried to play an equally important role. In the following paragraphs, we would consider some electronic devices used in a modern office, some of which have acquired great importance even in the offices in our country.

1. Teleprinter or teletypewriter. Under this system the teleprinters are placed at two ends. A teleprinter consists of two parts or machines. One machine is the electronic typewriter with the standard keyboard which is used to print messages, and the other part automatically prints the incoming messages. A message typed on the transmitting end gets printed automatically on the receiving end. Various branches of an organisation can be linked with the help of teleprinters for inter-communication. Teleprinters are being manufactured in the country by the Hindustan Teleprinters, a Government of India enterprise.

Telex. A teleprinter can be bought on private account and installed at different branches of the organisation. However, over the last ten years or so automatic telex services run by the Post Office have emerged in big cities like Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Madras, etc., and even in small cities and towns. Under the telex service, the teleprinters are hired to the subscribers who are allotted with a code number (like the telephone number) and linked to the nearest exchange. When the message is to be transmitted a signalling button is pressed to call the exchange. The operator then types out the desired telex code number. On receiving confirmation from the exchange that the teleprinter at the receiving end is free, the message is typed. The receiver then types out the acknowledgement which is received on the same machine at the transmitting end. However, there can be automatic telex services in which the clearance from the exchange is not needed. On the automatic transmitter, the message to be sent is punched on a tape using a key-board perforator and following the standard teleprinter code. The tape is then fitted into the transmitter and connected with the telex line. By switching on, the punched tape message is printed automatically on the receiving end. In this way, work can be done very quickly.

Advantages of teleprinters. Teleprinters' net-work is now spread all over the world. The reasons for such a popularity are: (*i*) Teleprinters are *easy to instal and operate*. Hardly any training is needed

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to work on a teleprinter. A typist can be easily trained to transmit and receive messages. (*ii*) Teleprinting net-work being wide offers the benefit of *wide contact at low cost.* (*iii*) The written messages can be transmitted to great distances at a great *speed.* (*iv*) Telex services have also proved *cheap compared with the telephone services* minus shouting needed to convey a message over long distances and the noise produced.

2. Telewriter or telautograph. This is called the electronic long-hand transmission. Under this method hand written messages are received almost simultaneously as they are written electronically. A metal plate is attached to the machine and the message is written on it and is received on the other end.

3. Telefax or facsimile telegraphy. It is not possible to transmit drawings, sketches and formulae over the teleprinters. Where there is need for transmitting such objects, facsimile telegraphy (or telefax) machines prove useful. The machines at two ends are joined by an ordinary telegraph line. The image or matter to be transmitted is reproduced on pieces of electro-sensitive paper which is wrapped around a cylinder. This cylinder is then inserted in the machine and the 'copy' is immediately received on the receiving end. The method has proved beneficial and is in widespread use in the USA and Europe. Besides possessing the advantages of a teleprinter, telefax machine can transmit sketches and drawings, etc.

4. Television. New techniques developed from television are now increasingly applied in the West although the concept of applying television technology in the offices in our country is too far away. Under this method, television cameras are focussed on the necessary records, statistical tables, memorandum or other documents to be seen or inspected. The image of these is received on the screen of a television placed on the receiving end. Records of branches located at a distance can be examined on television without making a physical journey to places situated at some distances, say 20-25 miles, from each other. This method offers many *benefits:* (*i*) *Avoiding physical effort.* Information is transmitted without any physical effort on the part of the person concerned. (*ii*) *Avoiding duplication.* Records are not to be duplicated for information. Reason is very simple: whenever records are needed for reference at a distant place, they can be transmitted over the television. (*iii*) *Easier verification.* The device is of special use in institutions like banks where signatures are to be verified. The work can be done without the clerk sending the documents for verification and leaving his seat. A lot of time is thus saved resulting in better customer service, especially during the peak

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hours. (*iv*) *Economy in storage.* Since records are not to be duplicated for storage at more than one place, there is saving in space requirements. This means lower storage and insurance costs.

Choice of Suitable Methods of Communication

We have seen that many methods of communication are available to the modern office. It is, therefore, necessary for an organisation to choose the right method for a given communication. However, the following factors may be kept in mind while choosing the system of communication:

1. *Speed* of transmission required.
2. *Whether a written record is necessary.*
3. *Distance* between departments and persons.
4. *Relative costs* of installation, maintenance and running the service.
5. *Whether copies are acceptable* or whether original documents must be transmitted or sent.
6. What *type of information* is to be transmitted?
7. *Facility to make changes* in view of the changing conditions of business organisation.
8. *Any special factor* concerning office system.

EXTERNAL COMMUNICATION

External communication is very vital to the existence of all types of organisations, whether small or big. *External communication can be described as the transmission of information to the people outside the organisation and its receipt from outsiders.* An efficient system of external communication has the following *objectives*:

1. *Corporate entity and legal regulations.* Since most large enterprises are joint-stock companies, it is necessary to keep in touch with the different Government departments.

2. *Gathering market intelligence.* It is a major objective of a manufacturing organisation. The office gathers the necessary information about prices of raw materials, machines and equipment for final managerial decision regarding their purchase.

3. *Contacts with customers.* Customers account for the existence of any enterprise. External communication system provides the channels for information to and fro from customers.

4. *Contacts with investors.* A large business exists on the funds provided by a number of people, *viz.*, shareholders, debentureholders, bankers and specialised financial institutions. It is thus necessary to

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keep in touch with these investors. Besides, a regular contact is needed with the stock exchange. External communication aims at keeping these individuals and institutions well-informed about the activities of the business and thus secure their goodwill for prosperity and growth.

5. *Other objectives.* External communications aim at achieving certain other objectives, for example, keeping in constant touch with the press and public to project a good public image of the enterprise.

Methods of External Communication

There are *two broad categories* of external communication, namely, the *oral communication* and the *written communication*, as it is in the case of internal communication. Let us recount these means briefly.

Oral communication. Some of the important means of external communication transmitted orally are:

1. Face-to-face conversation. Face-to-face means of external communication take place when the businessman visits his bankers, financial institutions or effects sales or purchases. The greatest advantage of this method in external communication is its effectiveness. A job which may take weeks to be done through written communication may be done by paying a single visit. However, it has its own drawbacks. Its greatest *drawback* is that the method is costly and time-consuming.

2. Telephone. It can be described as the greatest single source of external communication in modern business. We have already described the various telephone systems. These various systems (excepting the inter-com and house telephone systems) are meant to meet the needs of external communication. Telephone is quite a costly means of communication compared with the correspondence through mail or even telex services. Its cost climbs up steeply for outstation and foreign calls. It is, therefore, necessary to have a strict check on the calls made over the telephone. A telephone register should be kept at each point and different types of calls must be entered into this register.

Types of telephone service. It would be proper to consider the various types of telephone services provided by the Post Office in our country for external communication. They are classified as under:

(*i*) *Local calls* are made within the local limits of the telephone exchange or a grid of exchanges. In large cities, such calls are very important since distances are long and immediate contact with branches and customers, etc., within local limits may be needed.

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(*ii*) *Trunk calls* are made for contacting people outside the local limits. These calls can be ordinary calls, urgent calls, priority calls, lightning calls. Urgent calls, which have precedence over ordinary calls, are charged at twice the rate for ordinary calls. Priority calls are charged at four times the ordinary call rate and they have a priority over the urgent calls. Another category of calls, namely the lightning call, has a precedence over all other categories of calls. Such calls are charged at eight times the ordinary call rate. Lightning calls can be obtained instantaneously.

Inland trunk calls can be *reversed charge trunk calls*. Under this system, it is the called party that is charged with the telephone charges. This facility can be particularly useful to correspondents of newspapers and travelling salesmen. This facility can be obtained by making the necessary deposit. On making the necessary deposit, Card of Authority is issued by the telephone authorities which serves as a permission to make such calls.

Fixed time (*F.T.*) *trunk calls* are another variety of outstation calls. Such calls are booked in advance by the subscriber over direct trunk lines. They cannot be PP (Particular Person) calls and not more than 15 minutes in one hour is allowed for such calls.

Subscription fixed time (*SFT*) *calls* can also be booked a week in advance by lottery system.

Press-trunk calls are booked at concessional rates at any Public Call Office (PCO) or from any other telephone for a number registered with the telephone authorties as a "Press Number." However, concession is available for matter to be published as news in the newspaper. A newspaper can get its telephone registered as Press Number for a period of 3 years at one time.

Subscriber's trunk dialling (*STD*) *service* for outstation calls is now available in many cities in the country. Subscribers in big cities can dial directly (without reference to the local exchange) any number in many other cities. Such a service is now so common in the USA and other Western countries that it has entirely replaced the inland trunk service operating through the local telephone exchanges. In fact a STD service exists between many major US cities and West European cities. Even in our country a STD service exists between India and England and plans are being prepared to extend this service to other countries. The charges for STD are made in terms of the multiples of the rate for local calls.

STD facility is liable to be misused greatly in the office. It would be, therefore, desirable to have a strict watch over the use of telephone. If the number of telephone connections is more than one, it

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may be advisable to keep one connection linked with the STD system while others may be disconnected so that only local calls are possible on such numbers.

Methods of written external communication. Written external communication is not only cheap but is also inevitable. Sending of railway receipts, bills of lading, cheques, drafts, invoices, reports from salesmen touring remote areas, etc., necessitates the use of written communication. Following methods are generally used for written external communication:

1. Local messenger service. Where external written communication is meant for local limits, messenger service can be used. Its is a personalised but expensive method of external communication.

2. Postal and telegraphic services. The Post Office is a very useful channel for written communication. Different types of inland and foreign letters (ordinary, registered or insured) can be sent through the Post Office. Postal services are cheap and are very extensively used in our country. In fact, postal services are the most important single means of written external communication and is bound to retain its place for many years to come because of the size of the country and the state of its economy.

Telegraphic services are also operated by the Post and Telegraph Offices. Telegrams can be booked from any Post Office having telegraph lines or a Telegraph Office. They are very useful where written messages are to be communicated urgently.

There are many types of telegrams. They have been classified and discussed as below:

Foreign and inland telegrams. Telegrams can be foreign or inland depending upon the place to which the addressee belongs. They are inland telegrams where they are addressed to people within the country. They are foreign telegrams (also popularly known as 'cables' or 'cablegrams') when they are addressed to people outside the country.

Ordinary and express telegrams. Telegrams are ordinary telegrams as well as express telegrams. Express telegrams have a priority against ordinary telegrams as to transmission. The rates of charges for express telegrams are usually the double as for the ordinary telegrams. Besides, express telegrams are delivered round the clock while ordinary telegrams are delivered within specified hours of the day.

Phonograms. The subscribers of the telephone get the facilities of sending a telegram over telephone. The telephone subscriber rings up the telephone number reserved for receiving phonograms and the message of the telegram and other details are given. The message so transmitted is sent by telegram to the required person and place. The

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charges for phonogram are billed and collected in the normal course.

Greetings telegrams. The Post Office has devised a code for different kinds of messages of greetings for festivals and happy occasions, like marriages and birthdays. The rates of charges of greetings telegrams are lower than for the normal telegrams.

Reply-paid telegrams. Sometimes the sender wants an answer from the addressee without addressee incurring the charge. In that case reply-paid telegrams are sent. The reply can be sent immediately with the postman or telegraphman who delivers the telegram or can be sent within a reasonable time at the Telegraph Office.

Special category of telegrams. There are also some special category of telegrams. For example, the messages of the Press can be transmitted at very low rates. This is a boon to the newspapers which incur nominal cost to get the latest news for their readers.

3. Teleprinter and telex. Teleprinter has become an important medium of communication in to-day's business. Its importance in the field of external communication in our country is increasing day-by-day. Telex services are becoming more and more common today in bigger cities. We have already stated the advantages of teleprinter as a means of internal communication. Same benefits of the teleprinter accrue in the field of external communication.

Factors affecting choice of the method of external communication. An enterprise would use almost all types of means of external communication during the course of its functioning. However, for a group of messages at different times or for different types of messages at one time, different methods of external communication may be used. The choice of means for external communication depends greatly on the following factors:

(*i*) The *desired speed* of the message to be sent.
(*ii*) The *desired accuracy* of the message to be sent.
(*iii*) *Maximum economy* should be aimed at.
(*iv*) *Special needs* of an external communication.

Some Recent Advances in the Means of Communication

"Picturephone."[1] Picturephone is the newest device in the USA. It is a telephone that allows talkers at the two ends to see each other. Recently the Bell Telephone system provided a video telephone service between the Pittsburg and New York offices of Westing-house

[1]*Commercial Newsletter*, Nov./Dec., 1980. Published by US Commercial Office in India.

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Corporation. The user company reports excellent results and found that the picturephone saved many conferences and trips. Of course, such a service is bound to be a distant dream in our country. Picturephone can be used for communication between distant offices of the same organisation, *i.e.*, for long-distance intercommunication. It can also be used for external communication.

"Videovoice" System. Again in the USA, "videovoice" has been introduced. It is a system for transmitting still pictures between persons in widely separated areas. These pictures are transmitted over the telephone wires and are visible on a television screen. This can again be of great use between scattered offices of the same organisation or different organisations. The idea is however at an experimental stage.

Telecommuting.[1] Communicating via a centralised computer system at a terrific speed has been practised the world over for the last few years. The system works something like this:

(*i*) Typewriters are connected by telephone lines to a *central computer.*

(*ii*) The typists sit at the typewriters and print the *question* for the computer

(*iii*) Within seconds, the computer returns a typed *reply.*

(*iv*) On *instruction,* the computer stores into the memory the desired data.

Telecomputing has become important art in the field of air travel and hotel reservations in the USA and other advanced countries of the world. In recent months, our nationalised airlines too have been thinking of employing this means of providing reservations.

As the time passes, the means of communication are going to match with the needs (or should we say ambition) of man for travel, business and pleasure. In the USA, an effort is being made by all the leading computer manufacturers to link the telephone with the computer for more and more uses. We cannot remain untouched by these changes in the sphere of means of communication, although a revolution in communications cannot be foreseen in the near future.

QUESTIONS

1. 'Communication is a very important function of a business office." Discuss this statement highlighting the characteristics of good system of inter-com-

[1] Or should we call it "*Telecomputing*"?

Also see the Chapter on Office Furniture, Equipment and Machines-II for computers.

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munication.

2. "Communication is an important function of any business." Discuss this statement explaining the characteristics of a good system of internal communication. Discuss any two systems of internal communication mostly being used now-a-days. (*Co-Secy. Prel. '80*)

3. Describe the different types of communication.

4. You are the management consultant to a large company specialising in the field of administrative management. Of late, the management of the company has been feeling that there is something wrong with the present means of inter-communication. You have been requested to study the present system and make suitable suggestions. How would you judge the efficiency of present means of inter-communication? Also state your suggestions for improvement.

5. State how telephone has become the king-pin of modern communication in our country, both as a means of inter-communication as well as external communication.

6. Write critical notes on: (*a*) Dictating machines; (*b*) Staff location systems.

7. "Written communication scores over the oral communication." Comment.

8. What is oral communication? What are its different types? Discuss their respective merits and demerits.

9. Describe briefly the different mechanical devices used in: (*i*) oral communication; and (*ii*) written communication.

10. What are the factors that you would consider in choosing a method of inter-communication? Discuss one important means of inter-communications.

11. As the office manager of a leading export house, advise the Board on the choice of means of external communication.

12. Discuss the different methods of written communication. Which method of written inter-communication would you recommend for large bank with a number of branches all over the country.

13. Discuss the different methods of written external communication.

14. State the recent advances made in the means of communication.

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Chapter 17

OFFICE CORRESPONDENCE AND MAIL

CORRESPONDENCE and mailing are very important basic office routines of any organisation. They, along with records management, typing and duplicating and communication, represent the core of office routines. Records management and communication have already been discussed in two of the preceding chapters.

OFFICE CORRESPONDENCE

Much of the communication that takes place in an organisation is in writing. Thus handling correspondence is an important activity of the office. Correspondence can be defined as *communicating in writing on subjects of mutual interest either within the organisation or with an outsider*. The advantages of communicating in writing have already been considered in the previous chapter which underline the importance of correspondence as a means to disperse information within the organisation and to carry on communication with the people outside the organisation. Correspondence within the organisation lends definiteness to corporate policies and practices, promotes understanding between members and departments of the organisation. Correspondence with outsiders promotes image of the organisation, clarifies its policies, keeps its legal entity intact and keeps its operations going.

Organising Correspondence

Work of correspondence can either be centralised by creating a separate correspondence department or section; or it can be decentralised, in which case correspondence is prepared by each of the operating departments. Executives have secretaries attached to them and they prepare their own correspondence. Even under the system of centralised correspondence, the executives have their secretaries and prepare their own specialised correspondence.

Every organisation determines whether the correspondence work

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is to be centralised or decentralised on the basis of a number of factors, chief of which are: (*i*) *Comparative cost.* What is the estimated cost under each system? The one that has lower cost must be preferred. (*ii*) *Need for technical data.* Where each department deals with a variety of technical data, it would be better to have decentralisation. (*iii*) *Efficiency.* Efficiency has an important bearing on the system. One that is more efficient in view of the needs of the organisation must be adopted. Efficiency projects the right type of image amongst the members of public and the employees.

Centralising Correspondence

Once it has been decided to centralise correspondence, it becomes necessary to organise the Correspondence Department or Section. A Correspondence Supervisor is appointed to look after the work of the Correpondence Department. The individual departments of the organisation are relieved of all responsibility for handling correspondence. An exception is made in the case of important executives, who exercise their own judgment and discretion to get their correspondence dictated and prepared. However, for routine matters, they take the help of the Correspondence Department. The Correspondence Department receives all letters, looks up the necessary information in the concerned departments, dictates all types of correspondence, makes adjustments which are necessary, refers a matter for dictation in a certain department, systematically follows up all letters which require such attention and prepares the Correspondence Manual for reference in the Department as well as in the whole of the organisation.

Advantages of centralised correspondence. Centralised correspondence offers many advantages, more important of which are as follows:

1. *Greater proficiency.* Specialisation of correspondence activity gives it greater proficiency. High standards of correspondence are generally possible.

2. *Greater effectiveness.* Since correspondence follows high standards, correspondence is bound to be more effective and thus better results are produced.

3. *Greater efficiency.* With centralisation of correspondence, the rate of output may increase. It is obvious that specialisation generally increases productivity.

4. *Continuity.* Where correspondence pertaining to a customer is handled by the same clerk, he can keep up the desired continuity since he acquires a complete and intimate knowledge of the matter

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as well as of the customer. This continuity ensures better *customer servicing.*

5. *Better staff training.* Correspondence staff can be trained adequately and quite easily. The cost of training clerks in correspondence is bound to be less.

Disadvantages of centralised correspondence. Centralised correspondence has its disadvantages, more important of which are summarised as follows:

1. *Interruption of work.* The centralised correspondence department must interrupt the work of employees working in different functional departments to verify and gather information for sending replies on subjects regarding them. Such interruptions cause delays in the functional departments.

2. *Delays in correspondence.* It is not unusual to find a single draft being sent back and forth many times—from the Correspondence Department to a functional department and back—before it is finally okayed by a functional department. Such situations may cause immense delays and thus the very purpose of the Correspondence Department is defected.

3. *Weak and inaccurate correspondence.* The Correspondence Department has to depend upon second-hand knowledge on technical points. This may often result in weak and inaccurate replies being sent out to customers and other outsiders.

Decentralised Correspondence

In the case of decentralised correspondence, the functional departments take over the work of correspondence. Each department has its own correspondence clerks to look after the work of written communication and also to deal with external communication.

Advantages of decentralised correspondence. Decentralised correspondence offers its own advantages, which are summarised below:

1. *Smooth flow of work.* There is unhindered and smooth flow of work in decentralised correspondence system. The files and relevant documents are with the clerks in the department, which can be taken out and consulted without delay.

2. *Takes care of the technical needs.* Decentralised correspondence takes care of technical and other needs of the department concerned. The correspondence, therefore, is adequate and carries the right type of message.

3. *Based on first-hand information.* Correspondence is based on first-hand information about each case and thus it may reduce the chances of long correspondence since facts are well-marshalled.

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4. *Improved quality of work.* It is quite likely that the staff takes pains to improve quality of work due to the sense of loyalty and belongingness to the department for which they work.

5. *Variety and flexibility.* Decentralisation ensures greater variety of work to the office staff in the functional departments, thus making work more interesting. Besides, greater adjustment and flexibility are also ensured.

Disadvantages of decentralised correspondence. Decentralised correspondence has its own disadvantages. They are summarised below:

1. *Unequal quality of work.* It is likely that the quality of correspondence is bound to be unequal because department clerks cannot be very proficient in the art of correspondence. Such a correspondence does not add to the reputation of the organisation and outsiders may form a poor opinion about the organisation.

2. *Incorrect policy projection.* Each department may unwittingly project the organisation policy differently. This may confuse the outsiders and create a very poor impression about the organisation in the minds of the outsiders.

3. *Lack of facility for training.* With decentralisation, correspondents cannot be trained properly for correspondence work. This also creates problem of replacements in case a correspondence clerk in a department leaves the organisation suddenly.

Correspondence Practices

In most of our offices, there is no separate specialised Correspondence Department. Almost in all our Government and semi-Government offices, the work of correspondence is decentralised. This practice is also followed in most of our business organisations. Correspondence work, though requiring great skill and art, is a derogatory activity at the lower levels of the organisations. So far as senior officers and executives are concerned, they have their secretaries who assist them in the work of correspondence.

Correspondence Production

Production of the right type of correspondence is a dire necessity of all organisations. Good correspondence is effective and produces the desired results. Good correspondence implies that the right type of correspondence should be produced promptly and at the least cost to the organisation.

Stages in correspondence production. Production of correspondence has to pass through two inter-related stages: *Firstly,* the correspondence is to be drafted or composed. *Secondly,* after due approval of

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the drafted or composed correspondence, the correspondence has to be typed, cyclostyled, photocopied or printed for transmission to its destination.

DRAFTING OR COMPOSING OF CORRESPONDENCE

Drafting or Composing Effectively

While drafting correspondence, it may be desirable to consider the following points:

1. The draft must serve a known and definite purpose.
2. The status, the limitations and other factors concerning the recipient must be kept in mind.
3. The contents must be factual and unbiased.
4. Short familiar words and sentences must be used in place of the more difficult and vague words.
5. The correspondence must be in the more conventional and known style so that it is readily acceptable and understood.
6. The contents must establish an acceptable mood so that the reader takes the correspondence as a welcome object.
7. The correspondence must be conclusive and should not leave questions raised in queries, etc., unanswered.
8. Continuity must be kept up throughout the correspondence and a single paragraph must contain a single idea or only a few related ideas.

Responsibility for Drafting

Responsibility for drafting correspondence will vary from organisation to organisation. Within an organisation, it may vary from situation to situation. Where there is a centralised Correspondence Department, the responsibility for drafting the correspondence rests with this department; and also with the major executives of the organisation. In a decentralised system, the responsibility for drafting correspondence rests with the correspondence clerks in the functional departments and the executives in these departments. In smaller organisation the owners, the Office Manager and other executives may be responsible for drafting correspondence. Besides, the principals or owners may also look after correspondence drafting. Whatever be the arrangement for drafting correspondence, it is necessary to fix up a clear-cut responsibility for such a task in order to avoid confusion and ensure smooth flow of work.

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Different Methods of Drafting Correspondence

Every organisation evolves its own methods of drafting correspondence. Various common methods of drafting correspondence are as follows:

Form letters. It is quite common to find that an organisation has to send out letters of identical kind to many people during the course of the day. In other words, it would be essential to draft many similar letters during the course of the day. In order to overcome this problem, it would be better to take the help of form letters. "A form letter is a standardised letter used by an enterprise to answer all correspondence of a similar and recurring nature, and which is used to give the same information to a number of correspondents."[1]

This standardised letter or form letter may be a "form" or printed on a card. Only the date, number, referencing, addressee's name and address and other minor details are to be filled up to complete the correspondence work. These form letters are either printed or cyclostyled. In a large organisation like the Life Insurance Corporation or a big commercial bank, such form letters are printed. These form letters are used for debt collection, price enquiries, reminders, acknowledgement of letters, etc.

Advantages of form letters. Form letters offer many advantages, chief of which are: (*i*) The task of filling in the necessary details can be left to junior clerks. This saves on supervisory costs. (*ii*) They are great time-savers, both for the executives as well as the typists. (*iii*) They increase the speed of outward communication, adding considerably to efficiency. (*iv*) They allow for projecting a uniform policy, thus avoiding a lot of confusion in the minds of people who deal with the organisation. (*v*) Increased efficiency also reduces cost of correspondence work.

Drawbacks of form letters. Form letters are not without their demerits, which are: (*i*) Quite often they may lack personal touch and thus may project a feeling of neglect among the recipients. (*ii*) These letters may be stilted and officious in style and may not, therefore, make the desired impact. (*iii*) They may not be sympathetic to individual cases, *e.g.*, a defaulting debtor who has a proven record of good payment in the past.

In spite of their drawbacks, the form letters are a very important part of correspondence in all offices since the advantages which they offer are so overwhelming. Thus every organisation should try to improve upon the quality of these form letters. Where a draft of a form

[1]Denyer, *op. cit.*, p. 467.

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letter is to be prepared, various letters sent out (on the same subject) during the last 4-5 weeks are studied and the best draft can be selected. This draft can be further modified so that the message is complete with all the desired details.

Form or standard paragraphs. Instead of using the form letters, standard paragraphs can be used. Standard paragraphs are such paragraphs or sentences which are used in correspondence to deal with certain standard or specific situations of a recurring nature. These standard paragraphs are generally better than the form letters since they take into account the "personal touch" factor. These standard paragraphs are prepared with great care and numbered in serial order, which are supplied to the secretaries, typists and correspondence clerks. Thus while drafting a letter, the standard paragraphs are inserted in the letters at appropriate places along with the non-standard matter, which is dictated by the executive or written by the correspondents in the Correspondence Department or the functional departments. Areas of the use of standard paragraphs may relate to payments, delivery of goods, etc.

Advantages of standard paragraphs. The use of standard paragraphs offer the following advantages: (*i*) The best standard paragraphs can be used to achieve the best results. (*ii*) The speed of work improves greatly. (*iii*) Since not all the letter is standardised, the work may become more interesting and absorbing for the correspondence clerks. (*iv*) Supervisory costs are also less since uniformity in quality of correspondence is assured to a great extent. (*v*) The work of checking carbon copies is reduced greatly. This adds to efficiency and leads to economy.

Drawbacks of standard paragraphs. Some important drawbacks of standard paragraphs are: (*i*) Standard paragraphs may be used indiscriminately, thus the "personal touch" effect may be missing in the letters. (*ii*) Badly drafted standard paragraphs are the undoing of the correspondence of several organisations.

In order to derive the maximum benefits from the standard paragraphs, it is desirable to keep many points in mind. They are: (*i*) The paragraphs should be well-drafted by a person who is fully acquainted with the work for which they are meant. (*ii*) They should be tested and changed from time to time to suit the changing circumstances. (*iii*) A single paragraph should not contain more than one idea. (*iv*) Non-standard oral dictation may be used to make the letter suit the purpose. (*v*) A proper index of all paragraphs must be prepared to facilitate referencing for work. It may be proper to make these standard paragraphs a part of the correspondence manual where manual

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is more than a set of procedures.

Dictating letters method. The procedures for dictation cover the office work from the moment the executive receives the morning mail until each letter has been dictated or dealt with properly. Efficient dictation is achieved by (*i*) following careful and complete preparation for the dictation work; (*ii*) determining the right time for dictation; (*iii*) regulating the speed of dictation; and (*iv*) providing suitable physical surroundings.

Different methods of dictation, which can be used by executives, are: (*i*) dictating to a shorthand writing stenographer or stenotypist; (*ii*) dictating directly to a typist; (*iii*) dictating to a machine-writing stenographer or stenotypist; (*iv*) dictating to a dictating machine or tape (wire) recorder; and (*v*) dictating by remote control.

(*i*) *Dictating to a stenographer or stenotypist.* Dictating to stenographer or stenotypist knowing shorthand is a very common method of dictating correspondence in our offices. The executive concerned dictates letters, etc., personally to a stenographer who makes use of a pencil and pad for the purpose. The stenographer may sit face-to-face or get the dictation over the inter-com or other telephonic system.

The method offers some *advantages*. *First*, a direct rapport gets established between the executive and the stenographer, thus improving human relations in the office. *Secondly*, corrections, if any, can be carried out by the stenographer simultaneously. Therefore, transcribing becomes easy and less time-consuming.

The method has its *drawbacks* too. *First*, it requires the physical presence of the executive as well as the stenographer at one and the same place. The inter-com may, however, cut down the travelling time of the stenographer to and from his seat. *Secondly*, the method is fairly costly. It is a well-known fact that good executives, and even good stenographers, are very costly in any organisation. *Thirdly*, the great speed of dictating may be a little too much for a stenographer. (The Late President John F. Kennedy of the USA was reputed to speak at a speed of 400 words per minute.) Thus the message may not be written in full. *Fourthly*, since every important executive must be provided with a stenographer, the method may prove to be too costly where the work-load does not justify such an appointment.

(*ii*) *Dictating directly to a typist.* Under this method the message, letter or other correspondence is dictated directly to a typist who sits on the typewriter and types out the "matter". The method offers the advantage of direct transcription and thus saves time. However, it suffers from a number of drawbacks, *e.g.*, like the first method, physical presence of the executive and typist is needed at one place;

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the executive's time is very costly and thus the method may be very costly; and if the speed of dictation is not coordinated with the speed of the typist, the method may prove to be inefficient.

(*iii*) *Dictating to a machine-writing stenographer or stenotypist.*[1] Under this method, the stenographer uses a stenographic machine to record dictation. The stenographic machines are portable machines which work like typewriters. The stenographer depresses the required keys to print phonetic codes in place of the usual alphabet. Such machines are not to be seen in our offices. The use of such machines may only change the shape of monotony for the stenographer. The method has the same advantages and suffers from the same drawbacks as those of the first method in which the stenographer uses pencil and pad to get dictation in shorthand.

(*iv*) *Dictating to a dictating machine or tape (wire) recorder.*[2] This method has perhaps become the most popular method in the USA and countries of Europe. This is the direct result of the shortage of man-power in these countries. In our country, they are yet to gain any kind of popularity since work-force is a cheap commodity. The executive "dictates" to the machine and passes on the recorded message which is played back. They are very useful since they offer great convenience to the executive who can "dictate" when he is free to do so and then send the tape or spool for transcription. The typing pool is used to its optimum capacity and thus costs get reduced.

(*v*) *Dictating by remote control.* This technique is being followed in many organisations in the industrially advanced countries. Under this system, the dictating microphones of a number of executives are combined in a telephonic type of arrangement and are connected with a series of centrally located recording machines. This is done to have savings in the costs of equipment and in its operation. This is a centralised system of recording dictation. Many types of centralised systems for recording dictation are available in these countries. In spite of the numerous advantages which they offer in terms of reduced cost and increased efficiency, they suffer from a number of drawbacks, chief of which are: (*i*) The initial *capital cost* is too high for small organisation. (*ii*) Power failures and mechanical *breakdowns* may dislocate all work of dictation. (*iii*) Where the number of recorders is

[1]*See* chapters "Office Furniture, Equipment and Machines" also for stenographing machine.

[2]*See* chapter "Communication" in the book for a discussion on the advantages and disadvantages of their use.

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less than their *peak-hour demand*, the system may be exasperating for many executives, who have something urgent to dispose of. (*iv*) Many executives may "*hold*" *the line* only in the fear that a re-connection may not be available. (*v*) The typist or the secretary may not know the *size* of the correspondence or the document to be transcribed. (*vi*) Besides, if the corrections to a dictation are recorded towards the end, the recorder may have to be replayed for incorporating them.

Choosing the method of dictation. The choice of the method for dictation would depend upon the following factors: (*i*) cost; (*ii*) availability; (*iii*) the nature of work; (*iv*) personal touch needed; and (*v*) factors like convenience and precision needed in work.

TYPING AND DUPLICATING OF CORRESPONDENCE

Once different types of correspondence and other written communications, notices, reports, statements are drafted, they are to be typed and duplicated before they are despatched to different people. The basic purpose of written work is to communicate effectively with people who read it. Much of the effort involved in the production of correspondence and other written communication will be a mere waste if they are not neat and legible. The recipient of an information can only act if it is legible; and its neatness only enhances its "appeal value." Neatly typed, cyclostyled, photocopied or printed material attracts immediate attention and creates a favourable impression in the mind of the recipient. This enhances the prestige of the organisation in the eyes of all those people who deal with the organisation. Typing and duplicating can thus be described as the core office services without which a modern organisation cannot hope to function well.

It is quite usual to have more than one copy of a letter, statement, document or report. Where the number of copies needed is 4 to 10 or so, they are made out with the help of the typewriter itself by inserting the carbon paper between different sheets of paper. Other methods of duplicating are followed where the number of copies needed is substantial. (Different methods and machines of duplicating have been discussed in detail in the Chapters on Office Furniture, Equipment and Machines).

Organisation of Typing—Departmental Typing *versus* Typing (Stenographic) Pool

Work of typing in a large organisation can be organised in two ways—there can be decentralised or departmental typing or centra-

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lised or "pool" typing. Where there is departmental typing, typists and stenographers are appointed in different departments, and in the case of the typing pool the appointments are made in the typing pool.

Typing (or Stenographic) pool. A typing pool may be desirable in the case of an office in which many executives work. Once the office manager decides to have a typing pool, he should organise it properly. A *Typing Pool Supervisor* is appointed who allocates, coordinates and supervises the work of the pool typists and stenographers. The typing pool should be properly housed and should have adequate communication links with the rest of the organisation to improve upon its efficiency. It would be proper to carry out a cost-benefit analysis of the typing pool before it is instituted. Besides, it would be ideal to review its working from time to time to find out its benefit. Where an organisation decides to have a typing pool, it should see to it that the senior executives of the organisation must be provided with their own secretaries so that their work goes on smoothly.

Advantages of typing (stenographic) pool. A properly organised typing pool offers the following advantages: (*i*) *Fair distribution of work.* There is a fair and even distribution of work over different typists and stenographers. (*ii*) *Economy.* A typing pool ensures economy in the use of typist labour. The idle time inevitable in departmental organisations – for example, managers are holding a meeting— is filled by other work. (*iii*) *Better flow of work.* There is a smoother flow of work since absence of some typists and stenos does not affect the flow of work. (*iv*) *Better staff training.* Since the typing pool looks after a large part of typing and stenographic services in the organisation, each typist can get adequate training. The new typist can look after the more simple and routine work while the better typist can look after the more difficult work. Thus the new entrant can be provided with adequate training before he takes up more difficult work. (*v*) *More correct work.* The typing pool produces more correct work because the supervisor returns the completed work to departments after a careful check. (*vi*) *Isolation of noise.* The noise produced by the typewriters is confined to a room in which the pool is located, but the departmental typists disturb other employees in their dapartments. (*vii*) *Comparisons.* The relative efficiency of the typists in the pool can be easily judged and the better worker can be rewarded with promotion of higher pay. (*viii*) *Avoiding interruptions to work.* The pool arrangement is ideal for avoiding unnecessary disturbances to typists and stenos. The telephonic enquiries can be dealt with by the supervisor; and the trainee staff can note down

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messages and conduct searches, etc.

Disadvantages of typing (stenographic) pool. Although typing offers many advantages to an organisation, yet the arrangement has its disadvantages—from the point of view of the employees as well as the management. They are: (*i*) *Loss of personal touch.* The typists and stenos lose personal touch with the executives. Thus they may lose their continuity of interest in the business if not engaged on a personal basis. (*ii*) *Overloading.* Some persons may still be over-loaded with work. This usually happens where not all workers are equally efficient. (*iii*) *Delays.* Delays may occur and may prove very costly where some urgent work is not done on time. (*iv*) *Low quality of work.* The quality of work done may lack accuracy. This usually happens where work of technical nature is handled by different typists from time to time. (*v*) *Increased need for messenger services.* Centralisation also means an increased need for messenger and collection services. Thus much of the saving effected through typing pool may be offset by the additional cost of messenger and collection services.

Decentralised or departmental typing. *Advantages.* Like many other office activities, typing and stenographic services can be decentralised or departmentalised. Such an arrangement offers the following advantages: (*i*) *Personal touch.* It is a great advantage of this method of organising typing. The typist or stenographer is able to know the executive and his method of working well. Also the executive knows the needs and demands of his subordinate well. (*ii*) *Elimination of delays.* Delays are eliminated altogether. The work is promptly attended to. Besides, the work priorities of the department become well-known. (*iii*) *Better morale.* The typists and stenographers develop a group loyalty for their individual departments and hence have a better morale. They thus work more efficiently. (*iv*) *Better technical work.* Work of technical nature can be done more efficiently due to two reasons: (*a*) if the work is of repetitive nature, the typist gets familiar with the work; and (*b*) clarification about technical details can be sought at great speed from within the concerned department.

Disadvantages. The decentralised or departmentalised arrangement suffers from many drawbacks, which are summarised as follows: (*i*) *Uneven work-load.* The typists and stenos are made to carry uneven work-load. Some typists may have a small quantity of work, while some others may be under great strain. (*ii*) *Noise.* Noise from the typewriters is a great disturbing factor in the office and the departments suffer from the constant noise of the typewriters at work. Even the "noiseless" typewriter creates sufficient noise to disturb other workers. (*iii*) *Tendency to talk.* There is a tendency to 'chat-up' the

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typists in the department and the work slows down. (*iv*) *Interruptions to work.* Interruptions to work may be too many in certain cases, especially if lot many messages are to be noted down by the departmental typists. (*v*) *Problem of training.* Departmental typing does not afford much opportunity for training of new typists. Besides, if new typists are put to all types of work, errors are bound to be too many.

Typing arrangement in practice. It may be ideal to have a mixture of the two arrangements. The typists and stenographers may be put into two broad categories: (*i*) personal secretaries of a few very senior executives; and (*ii*) others. While the first category works almost exclusively for the executives with whom they are attached, the second category is put in the typing pool. But each member of the typing pool is attached to a given executive and also takes care of the rush work and shares the load evenly. Such an arrangement takes ample care of the personal touch factor and promotes better morale and creates greater efficiency. In other words, the benefits of the typing pool are enhanced through such an arrangement.

MAILING SERVICE

Mailing service is an integral part of the office activity. *Mail can be defined as the written communication that passes through a messenger or the Post Office.* It is of *three* distinct types: (*i*) *Incoming or Inwards Mail;* (*ii*) *Outgoing or Outward Mail;* and (*iii*) *Inter-departmental Mail.* Again these three types of mail may assume different forms, like letters, circulars, various documents, telegrams, orders, remittances, etc.

Mail can be described as the backbone of modern organisations. It is thus necessary that the mailing service should be properly planned, supervised and directed. Efficient mailing service is needed on account of a number of reasons. *First*, mailing is the first and the last point of contact between the firm on the one hand and customers and public on the other. Efficient mailing service creates a lasting impression on the outsiders. *Secondly*, efficient mailing service improves inter-department and inter-branch relations and also efficiency. *Thirdly*, efficient mailing service supplements the efforts of correspondence, transcription and records management. Much of the work done regarding them shall be a sheer waste unless it is backed by good mailing service. *Fourthly*, in some organisations, *e.g.*, a correspondence school or mail order house, mailing activity is a costly affair and hence much attention must be paid to mailing service

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so that benefits are at least equal to the cost incurred. *Fifthly*, it is a well-known fact that the mailing department has been usually the training ground for many juniors. They learn much from the routines of the mailing service. They get familiar with the organisation set-up, people, routines, chains of responsibility, etc.

Planning the Mailing Service

To get the best results from the mailing service, it is essential that it should be properly planned and organised. Proper planning of mailing service in the office involves the following: (*i*) providing suitable facilities for mail service; (*ii*) organising the mailing department; and (*iii*) centralising mailing service.

(*i*) **Providing facilities for mail service.** The type and extent of facilities to be provided for handling mail are to be decided by two factors, *viz.*, the volume to be handled, and the management thinking on what it means by efficient systems and routines and the role the mechanisation is supposed to play in the mailing department. Besides, efficiency in mailing service is the direct result of how mailing service has been integrated with the whole of the organisation in the layout plan.

Mechanisation is to be resorted to if the organisation is large, and also by its very nature its mail is large in volume, *e.g.*, mail order house or a correspondence school. Some important machines in our offices are the addressing and franking machines. Also the quality of mailing service would depend on other equipment, *e.g.*, the sorting lables, pigeon-holes, racks, letter openers, time and date stamps, mail bags, Post Office Guide and scales for weighing, etc. Within the mailing department, the placement and location of different types of machines and equipment have an important effect on the efficiency of the mailing service. For the purpose of their location within the department, it is necessary to pay attention to these factors: optimum use of the space available, comfort and safety of the staff in the mail room, smooth work flow or straight line work flow, and the type of equipment chosen.

(*ii*) **Organising the mailing department.** We have already considered why mailing service must be organised efficiently. Efficiency of the mailing service depends upon the proper organisation of the mailing department. The mailing department should be so organised that the mailing service has the least cost and maximum efficiency. Unorganised mailing service results in mistakes and delays; and thus cost of operating the mailing service increases. Such mistakes and delays also affect adversely the working of other departments by

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interrupting and holding up the work in other departments. Hence savings of cost and time are made by other departments if mailing department is organised properly. The organisation of the mailing department is influenced by a number of factors, such as, the philosophy of management, the nature and size of the individual office and peak periods of mail handled over the year and the degree of mechanisation resorted to in the office in general.

(*iii*) **Centralising mailing service.** The organisation of mailing service implies centralisation or decentralisation. The centralisation or decentralisation of mailing depends upon the philosophy of management, the nature and size of the individual office, low and peak periods of the mail handled over the year and degree of mechanisation resorted to in the office in general. In a large organisation, with a large volume of mail, great mechanisation (consequently specialisation) in the office and the management's policy to group and centralise different activities in the organisation, mailing is bound to be a separate group of activities. In other words, a separate centralised Mailing Department will have to be created. The mailing department is headed by a supervisor or an executive and staffed with people specialising in mailing tasks. In many offices, while the inwards mail may be centralised, the outwards mail may be departmentalised. In some small offices with small volume of incoming and outgoing mail, the work is handled by the same clerk. The principal object of centralisation of mailing is to create efficiency through specialisation. For the purpose of specialisation in mailing, it is necessary to consider the following: (*i*) proper planning of the system; (*ii*) appointment of suitable personnel, (*iii*) effective supervision by appointing a supervisor; (*iv*) proper layout of the mailing room; (*v*) evolving suitable systems and routines, (*vi*) coordinating the work in the Mailing Department and integrating its working with the rest of the organisation; and (*vii*) consistent review of the working of Mailing Department.

Advantages of centralisation of mailing. The creation of a separate Mailing Department offers many advantages, which are summarised as follows:

1. *Specialisation.* Mailing activity is a specialised activity. Each employee in the department has a special aptitude for work. This results in greater work satisfaction, greater accuracy and speed.

2. *Application of systems approach.* Proper systems and routines can be evolved by which mailing operations are combined and duplication of work (and workers) is avoided. Thus there is saving in terms

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of time and money.

3. *Better supervision and coordination.* Mailing services receive the executive attention that they deserve. A well-trained expert supervisor can be appointed to allocate duties to the staff and supervise them efficiently. He coordinates their tasks. All this leads to smooth and speedy performance of mailing.

4. *Better performance of routines.* The mail is opened promptly with great care. Unopened personal and confidential mail goes to the persons concerned directly without delay. The opened mail is sorted out and arranged for delivery and the whole work of the office can start immediately on opening. Similarly outwards mail routines are carried out efficiently. The mail is collected, sorted, folded, sealed in envelopes, properly stamped, entered in Post Book and despatched promptly.

5. *Better control over stamps.* The consumption of postage stamps is well-regulated and proper accounts for their consumption can be maintained. Letters going out are properly stamped. Thus wastage due to over-stamping and embarrassment due to under-stamping are altogether eliminated.

6. *Avoiding rush work.* The outward mailing routines can be staggered and properly scheduled so that there is a regular outflow of mail. Thus rush work and congestion are avoided. This also ensures economy.

7. *Optimum use of machines.* The mechanisation of the Central Mailing Department is possible since the different types of machines and equipment like franking machines, letter openers, folding and sealing machines can be put to the best use. Decentralisation may mean duplication of many types of equipment and machines.

8. *Economy in other departments.* Mailing Department allows the staff in other departments to concentrate on their work and improve their performance. Typists, stenographers and clerks in other departments concentrate on their specialist activities instead of performing mailing work. This saves on labour and hence economy in operating costs of other departments results.

9. *Training of employees.* Centralised mailing often allows new employees to get training in the routines of the office. It is here that they get familiar with the organisation and the different executives.

INCOMING OR INWARDS MAIL

Procedure for Handling Inwards Mail or Dak

Inwards mail forms the basis on which an organisation works and

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exists. Much of the efficiency of an organisation is reflected through a proper handling of inwards mail. A good system of inwards mail handling has a great impact on the customers and, in turn, on the profitability of the organisation. Once a decision about centralisation (or decentralisation) of inwards mail has been taken, the next step would be to lay down an efficient procedure for its handling. The following procedure is suggested for efficient inwards mail handling.

1. Receiving and collecting the mail. The ordinary mail or *dak* is received from the post office through the postman once or twice a day in most towns in our country. In the bigger cities, the post is delivered three to four times a day. A proper arrangement will have to be made to receive this mail. The mail will also be received in the office through messengers and dak riders of other offices and branches within the same city. Besides, the registered post and telegrams are received in an organisation. Therefore, a suitable arrangement will have to be made—to receive all such mail. Usually a clerk—sometimes the receptionist—is assigned the work of receiving letters, telegrams, etc., and issues receipts and acknowledgements or signs peon books.

It is a usual practice with a large or even medium-sized organisation to hire a post bag or post box at the nearest Post Office, where this facility is available. Where such an arrangement has been made, an employee of the mailing department or inwards mailing section is sent to the Post Office once or twice a day to collect the mail. Hiring of a post box at the Post Office offers the advantage of correct delivery by the Posts and Telegraphs Department. Letters and parcels find their way into the bag or the box without any delay.

2. Opening the mail. Normally the morning mail is the heaviest. Thus it would be desirable to make adequate arrangements so that when the office opens for the day's business, the whole of the mail or most of it should have been opened, sorted and distributed, ready for the concerned staff in various departments. Therefore, for this purpose, the mail room staff in a large organisation must reach the office half an hour before the office starts functioning for the day. It is also necessary that a senior member of the staff is present to supervise the mail, especially if cash is received in the mail.

Letters may be opened by hand or by letter-opening machines. With cheap and abundant labour in our country, opening letters by hand with the help of a paper knife is the most common method of opening letters even in very large organisations. In economically advanced countries of Western Europe, the USA and Japan, letter-opening

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machines are used where the number of mail received every day is very large, say 100 or more. An electrically operated letter-opening machine takes just one-fourth of the time taken by the manual process. The letter-opening machines have rotary knives which shave off a very tiny slice of the edge of an envelope. This small edge is usually only about two thousandth of an inch thick, so that it is nearly impossible to damage the contents of the envelope. Where such a machine is less sophisticated, it is advisable to shake the contents to the other side of envelopes first. Only sealed non-confidential envelopes should be opened. Envelopes or covers marked "confidential", "private" or "personal", or otherwise addressed to executives by name should not be opened and should be forwarded to concerned persons or departments. Thus a sorting of sealed mail must be carried out before it is opened. It is necessary that a supervisor or a senior member of the staff is present to supervise the opening of the mail, especially where cash is received in the mail.

Removing the contents. It is necessary to remove all contents of the envelopes. Thus it would be wise to see that the envelopes are empty before they are thrown away. A physical check of the envelopes or covers at the opening table after the contents have been taken out may be carried out for the purpose. Wherever necessary contents should be stapled or attached with the envelope to authenticate the time and date of receipt, etc.

Outline of standard method of opening mail.[1] Considering the above decision, it would be worthwhile to follow the following outline in the matter of opening mail in a large organisation:

(*i*) The office manager should see to it that the work of opening the mail should start at least half an hour to an hour before the office opens. For this purpose, he should put a few persons on duty. It is not necessary that all the morning mail must be opened before the office starts for the day. The basic idea is that some minimum work must be provided to the various departments of the office and also correspondence marked "important", "confidential", "urgent", "immediate" must be opened forthwith.

(*ii*) It is the job of the office manager to see that the work in the office starts immediately on opening, otherwise the time and money spent on early opening of mail would be a mere waste.

(*iii*) The staff responsible for opening mail must be thoroughly conversant with the method of its opening. Wherever a Mailing

[1] Leffingwell and Robinson, *op. cit.*

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Manual has been prepared, it should be used and suggetsions about improvements, if any, must be conveyed upwards in the organisation.

(*iv*) A preliminary sorting of mail helps in fixing the priorities of opening mail, *e. g.*, a letter from a known customer may be the subject-matter of immediate attention, while an astray souvenir may wait for some time before it is attended to.

3. Scrutinising the contents. After the contents have been removed, the next step in handling inwards mail is to scrutinise the contents of the mail to find out the purpose of the mail. The letters and enclosures are to be sent to the concerned department. Thus it would be necessary to verify whether the enclosures are in order or not. Sometimes these enclosures are very valuable documents or money in the form of cheques, bank drafts, postal orders, postage stamps and even currency notes. Their amount should be compared with the amount given in the letter to check the correctness of the details. A noting should be done on the covering letter for the money received, which should be initialled by the mail opening clerk.

4. Stamping the date. Every letter document and circular received in the office must be stamped with the date of its receipt. Where the time of receipt is also of value, it should be put on the *dak* received, for example, for a telegram time is of great essence. Sometimes a serial number is stamped for numerical references. In most organisations a rubber stamp is used. The date stamping is also done with the help of "Dating", "Numbering" and "Time Recording" machines. In many offices, a specially designed rubber stamp to allow for referencing and putting of other details can be used. The design of such a stamp is as follows:

V.P.H. Ltd
No._____
Received_____
Acknowledged_____
Replied_____
Filed_____

5. Preparing circulation slips. It is likely that certain inwards mail is of interest to more than one department. It is, therefore, necessary that such mail should be brought to the notice of each interested

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department. For this purpose, each department may be supplied with a photocopy, or cyclostyled or typed copy of the same. Where the organisation does not want to incur extra cost, a *circulation slip* is prepared. This circulation slip may be a printed form, or a rubber stamp may prepare such a circulation slip. It would be better to have a printed form for the circulation slip. Following is the specimen of such a circulation slip:

Circulation Ship

Please read the attached correspondence and pass at once to the next person on the list:

Name	*Please initial when read*
Director No. 1	
,, No. 2	
,, No. 3	
,, No. 4	
,, No 5	
,, No 6	
Company Secretary	
Chief Accountant	

Received by Inwards Mail Department and circulated on:

Date Stamp here

6. Recording the mail. Most organisations like to keep a permanent record for all inwards mail. For this purpose, the "*Inwards Mail Register*", "*Dak Received Register*" or "*Letter Received Book*" is maintained. This register records the particulars of letter received. Where such a register is maintained, it is useful as an aid to check

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the promptness of the disposal of a particular letter and also to check whether a letter has been returned for filing.

No.	*Date*	*Name & Address of Sender*	*Nature of Contents*	*Subject*	*To Whom Referred*	*Date of Reply*	*Initial of Officer*
1.	1978 March 1	P. Roy & Co Dalhousie Square,	Letter and Cheque	Payment on Account	Accounts Deptt.	1978 March 2	
2	,,	B.S. Bedi & Son Ltd., Perth, Australia	Letter and Invoice	Supply Against our Order No. 1234/PS/78	Purchase Deptt.	March 3	
3.	,,	G. Bhalla, S. Apartments, R. Place, New Delhi	Letter	Request for the Issue of Share Certificate	Share Deptt.	March 2	
4.	,,	Pele Spitz & Co. Ltd., Australia	Letter	Order	Sales Deptt.	March 4	

Specimen: Inwards Mail Register

This register for incoming mail is not the ideal method of keeping the record. It is cumbersome and time-consuming, and hence is expensive and causes delays. Therefore, it has been discarded in many large

Letters for _____ Department

Date _____ Time _____

S. No.	*Name of Sender*	*Address*	*Remarks*

Specimen: Mail Room List

organisations in order to ensure quick arrival of mail in the departments and its disposal in a shorter span of time—the time saved being

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the time spent in entering the details in the register. Under such an arrangement—where no details are recorded in the register—the letter is not filed till it is answered and the loss of a letter is regarded as a serious offencs. Where the office systems desire that some record must still be kept, it is usual to make use of the "*Mail Room List*". The documents and letters, etc. are listed in this list in a batch and delivered to the concerned individual or department.

There is another method which can be adopted if there is central filing in the organisation. This method is as follows: (*i*) The letters, documents and other inwards mail are numbered and entered in a schedule which indicates the departments dealing with them. (*ii*) The schedule then passes to the filing clerk and he marks off different letters and documents, etc., as and when he receives them for filing. (*iii*) The schedule is checked from time to time and information is sought from different departments about the disposal of letters which have not been filed so far. Following is the specimen of such a *Mail Room Schedule*:

S. No.	*Date*	*From*	*Acct. Deptt.*	*Cashier*	*Works*	*Sales Deptt.*	*Purchase Dir.*	*Mg. Deptt.*	*Received for Filing*
1.	1978 March 2	Raja Ram Co. Ltd. Delhi						480	2-3-78
2.	,,	B.K. Roy. Bombay		481					7-3-78
3.	,,	Raghvan & Raghvan Co. Madras				482			
4.	,,	Min. of Industry, Govt. of India, New Delhi.					483		9-3-78

7. Sorting and distribution of the inwards mail. The process of sorting is carried on normally along with the recording of the mail. Separate baskets and trays are used to sort out the mail for different sections, departments and individuals. If the size of the inwards mail is large, pigeon holes are used. Where recording of the inwards mail is not done, the contents are sorted out as soon as it is date-stamped. The sorting clerk should see to it that the enclosures are carefully fastened before the letters, etc., are handed over to the concerned departments. On receiving the letters in the respective department, the clerks concerned sign the register or list as acknowledgement.

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Use of a desk sorter. In industrially advanced countries, a desk sorter is used for unopened mail. It is a very convenient piece of equipment. The desk sorter has a flat base-plate and to this is connected a series of hinged metal flaps. Each flap projects a short distance beyond the previous one, and has a visible index panel showing the names of different departments. The letters are placed between the flaps and are held in position by the weight of the flaps. Then there are other sorters, which consist of filing pockets conveniently arranged in concertina style. There are also work organisers.

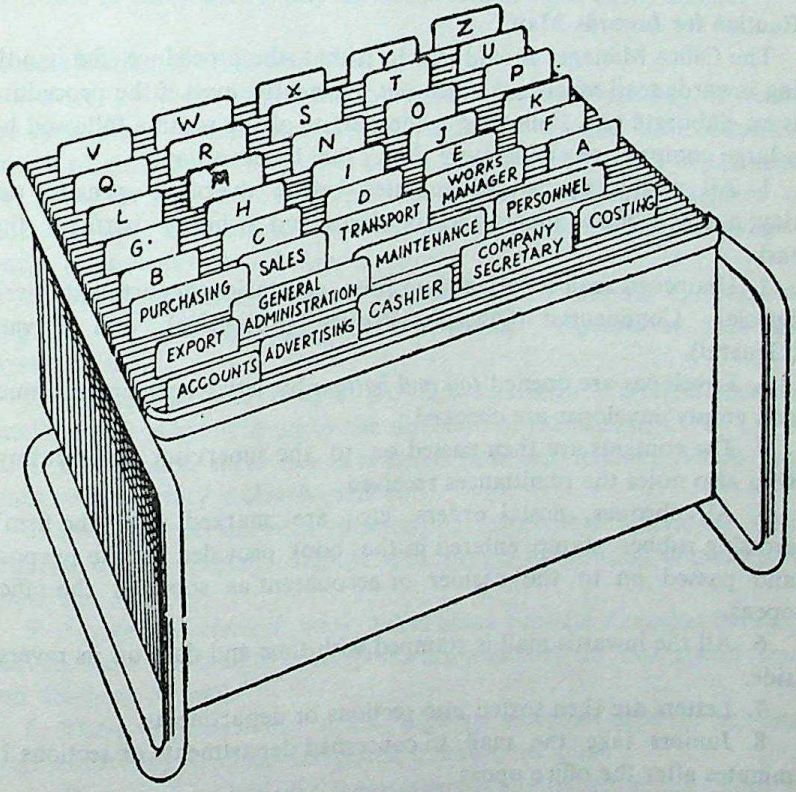

FIG. 17.1. A work-organiser.

8. Follow-up. Efficient reply-back to incoming correspondence is the index of the efficiency of the organisation and improves its image. A letter received in a department is no indication that it shall be dealt with quickly. It is, therefore, necessary that quick disposal of incoming mail should receive utmost attention of all concerned. The executives and various departmental heads should see to it that letters

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received during the day are attended to on the same day and replies are prepared (or necessary action is taken) the same day; and then they are filed properly. Any lapse on the part of the dealing clerks should be taken as a breach of working norms. Any repetition should not be tolerated and should be adequately dealt with. If an office manual lays down the rules for disposal of incoming mail by the receiving department, they should be properly followed. Any difficulty faced in following such rules must be removed or rules must be amended to suit the needs.

Routine for Inwards Mail

The Office Manager should see to it that the procedure for handling inwards mail must be carried out efficiently, even if the procedure is an elaborate one. Following is the outline of the routine followed by a large company receiving more than 1,000 letters a day.

1. All mail is opened 45 minutes before the office opens for the day; a batch of one supervisor, six clerks and a junior perform the task.
2. Unopened mail is sorted into four categories (department-wise): Special, Confidential (Official), Private (Executive), and Private (General).
3. Envelopes are opened *top and bottom* by letter-opening machine, and empty envelopes are checked.
4. The contents are then passed on to the supervisor for scrutiny, who also notes the remittances received.
5. All cheques, postal orders, etc., are marked with the firm's crossing rubber stamp, entered in the book provided for the purpose and passed on to the cashier or accountant as soon as the office opens.
6. All the inwards mail is stamped with time and date on its reverse side.
7. Letters are then sorted into sections or departments.
8. Juniors take the mail to concerned departments or sections 15 minutes after the office opens.
9. Where destinations of letters are in doubt, the Supervisor decides and indicates the department to which they should go.
10. To cut down delays, no lists are prepared. The dealing assistant is relied on for efficient handling; and delay in handling or the loss of a letter is considered a serious offence and dealt with accordingly.

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OUTGOING OR OUTWARDS MAIL

Every organisation sends out mail of different departments everyday. It is desirable to handle outwards mail efficiently due to the following reasons: (*i*) Improper handling of outwards mail creates a *bad impression* in the minds of the outsiders, who deal with the organisation. (*ii*) *Delays* in sending replies slackens the pace of office activity resulting in losses. (*iii*) Improper handling also affects the organisation *funds* adversely, for example, a telegram may have to be sent due to delay where only an inland letter might have sufficed.

Centralisation of Outwards Mail

Before deciding about the procedure for mail handling, it would be desirable to decide about centralisation of outwards mail. Centralisation of outwards mail implies that a separate section or department for outwards mail is created which looks after the different aspects of this activity. Centralisation of outward mail offers many *advantages*, more important of which are as follows:

1. Duplication and *errors are reduced* to the minimum by combining all the scattered mailing operations. Operations thus get systematised.
2. Mailing services receive the due *executive attention* since the mailing unit is brought under the direction of management.
3. One capable *supervisor* is assigned with the mailing details and thus responsibility is clearly defined.
4. *Postage costs are reduced* since one responsible individual takes charge of the postage stamps and proper accounting of postage is possible.
5. *Saving on clerical work* takes place because stenographers can devote their full-time to correspondence and they do not spend time on despatch of mail.
6. There is *economical use of different machines* used for mailing. *e.g.*, addressing machine and postal franking machine.
7. *Rush work* in different departments is eliminated at the close of business hours and thus congestion is avoided. The mailings are appropriately staggered so that they do not reach the Post Office in one lot at a time when even the Post Office has a rush of work.
8. There can be *better pre-sorting* of different classes of mails, especially the second and third class mail; and they can be sent in bulk if destined for the same area.

Centralisation of outward mail services has its *drawbacks* too, like any other centralised activity, chief of which are as follows:

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1. Centralisation may lead to an over-emphasis on routines to be followed by departments for sending outward mail, thus causing undue delays.

2. Centralisation of outward mail may not be able to cope with the letters to be sent out immediately.

The advantages of centralisation of outward mail are so overwhelming that centralisation has to be resorted to in all organisations. It is, of course, necessary to have such administrative arrangement which cut out delays.

Procedure of Handling Outwards Mail or Dak

The outwards mail passes through three distinct stages before it is finally despatched, which are described below:

1. Production. The outwards mail is to be produced for despatch. This involves drafting, dictating and transcription, etc. This aspect has already been discussed in the chapter.

2. Signaturing and controlling. Every letter and other mail leaving the office must be signed. For this purpose, the authority must be well-defined. Usually, it would be alright if ordinary, routine or "form letters" are signed by the correspondence clerk or a junior executive while important letters are to be signed by the departmental heads and in some cases by the chief executive or even by the Chairman of the Board. Before the executives put their signatures, it is usual to check and verify the contents of the letter. This is done by the correspondence clerk, the supervisor or the superintendent concerned, who initials it. Signatures are put in full while copies are to be initialled. Where a mailing manual or correspondence manual exists in an organisation, it should clearly lay down the authority for signing different types of letters and documents.

3. Referencing. Referencing is an important part of the records management. Letters, documents, etc., mailed out must be "referenced." Every letter has a symbol or a code for easy reference in future. The addressee of the letter is also requested to quote this reference number for easy location of documents and quick disposal of enquiries. Each organisation follows its own method of coding and referencing depending upon the methods of classification and indexing that it follows. For example, the Heavy Machines Division of a large engineering firm uses a code like this for a letter sent to a customer: HMS/952/81, where HMS stands for Heavy Machines Sales Department, 952 stands for the Letter Number, and 81 suggests the year 1981.

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Despatching of Outwards Mail

Despatching can be defined as sending of the mail. It is thus a process in which the outwards mail is sent to its destination through the messenger, the Post Office or the Telegraph Office. Despatch of outwards mail involves the following: 1. Collection; 2. Folding letters; 3. Preparation of envelopes; 4. Sealing; 5. Sorting and stamping; 6. Entering in Despatch Register or Outwards Mail Register; and 7. Posting and delivery of the outwards mail.

All these operations are performed by the despatch clerk, or secretary in a small organisation. In a large organisation, where a separate section for the despatch of outwards mail is organised (*i.e.*, there is centralisation), all these functions are performed by such a section.

Operations or functions of the despatch section. The Despatch Section is an important part of a large office. Its efficient functioning is important in more than one respect. Much of the efforts of the operating departments and Correspondence Department or Section will be useless where the despatching is inefficient. Delays, inefficient accounting of postage and wastages of materials may occur. It is thus necessary that the despatching of letters should be adequately controlled with reference to the rules framed for Mail Outwards Department or Section. Different operations or functions of the Despatch Section are discussed below:

1. *Collection of outwards mail.* Efficient collection of outwards mail or its quick transmission to the Depatch Section is necessary. A tray for outwards mail should be placed in every department and then it be conveniently collected for despatch or messengers can be employed by the departments to carry the mail for despatch. Regular timings can be set for the coilection of all outgoing mail. The mail may be collected 3 to 4 times a day at specified intervals. In this manner, there is a constant flow of work; and the letter can reach the post office at different clearing times. Thus efficiency of the Despatch Section can be improved.

2. *Folding letters.* On collecting the mail from different departments, the letters are to be folded for inserting into the envelopes. Where an inland letter or foreign air letter has been used, folding is to be done as indicated on its cover. The ideal method of folding letters and their envelopes, while the number of folds is kept to the minimum. Where the addresses on the envelopes are typed out by the secretaries or clerks in other departments, it would be desirable that they are supplied with the correct size of envelopes. In Government departments and semi-Government organisations, the work of

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folding is usually done by the despatch clerk. While letters are being folded, it is necessary to see that all the enclosures given in them are attached. This scrutiny is to be carried out by the despatch clerk. Any discrepancy discovered at this stage must be rectified by referring the matter to the concerned department. In industrially advanced countries, the work of folding letters has been taken over by *folding machines* which can fold as many as 15,000 sheets in an hour.

3. *Preparation of envelopes.* Preparation of envelopes is a process which can take place at one of the stages, *viz.*, *first* the secretaries or correspondence clerks can prepare them before the signed letters are sent to the Despatch Section; or *secondly*, they can be prepared by the clerks in the Section. While addresses are being written, it is necessary to see that the letters are sent to the right addressees. Addressing can be done in hand, or on a typewriter, or with help of addressing machines, which print addresses at a great speed.

Use of 'window' envelopes. 'Window' type of envelopes are very commonly used since they offer a number of advantages: (*i*) wrong address is avoided since the name and address printed in the letter are put against the window; (*ii*) they save on time and labour since an address is not to be written again. The only care that has to be taken is that the letter should be so folded that the address is fully visible through the 'window'. It may be ideal to design stationery carefully so that it fits into such envelopes. The "box corners" should be printed to position the name and address of the recipient. It is also useful if fold marks are printed down one edge of the paper.

4. *Sealing.* The different categories of mail is now to be sealed with gum, adhesive or cellotapes. The envelopes, inland letter forms, circulars, etc. must be sealed with care so that the adhesive is not spread out. In our enterprises and Government departments the work is done with hands; but this is a very tedious work. In the industrially advanced countries, the work of sealing has been taken over by "sealing machines" in large organisations. Different categories of mail, like "Book Post", "Registered Post", "Registered Parcel", etc. should be sealed as per the regulations of the Post Office.

5. *Sorting and stamping.* As the letters are being sealed, it may be ideal to sort them category-wise. The outwards mail falls into two broad categories: (*i*) which is to be sent through the messenger; and (*ii*) which is to be sent through the Post Office, or the airlines. Post Office and airlines mail is of different types, *viz.*, Registered Post, Book Post, Ordinary Post, Foreign Post, Post Under Certificate, Parcels to

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be sent through the Indian Airlines, Air India and other airlines etc. Foreign Post is of different types, *e.g.*, the sea mail and the air mail. Even amongst these, there is further classification. The sorted mail should be put into separate trays so that the task of stamping is facilitated.

Now stamps are to be fixed on letters which are to be sent by post. While the stamps are being fixed, it would be desirable to weigh the different aritcles to be sent by post so that there is neither over-stamping nor under-stamping. An uptodate copy of the "Post Office Guide" should be kept with the despatch clerk responsible for fixing stamps. This Guide contains the rules and rates for different categories of post.

Franking machines. Where the number of letters to be sent through post is very large, franking machines are being used. This machine

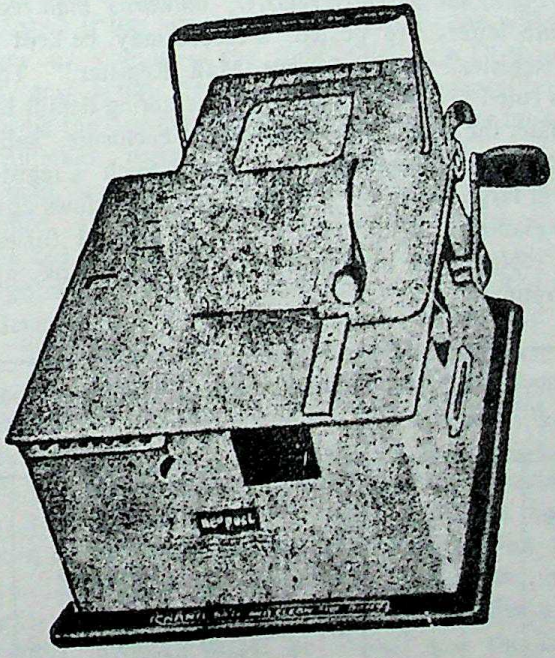

FIG. 17.2. Franking Machine.

is available from the Post Office after due formalities have been fulfilled and payment on account of postage has been made in advance. The envelope or cover is inserted in the machine which prints the desired value of stamps after its locking mechanism has been adjusted.

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It also prints the cancellation mark along with the printing of stamps. The franking machine gets locked automatically after the value of stamps, for which payment has been made to the Post Office, has been printed. In England and other countries, there are stamping-cum-sealing machines which seal, *frank*, stack and count the mail at a speed of 15,000 per hour.

The franking machines have not proved very efficient in a large institution, mailing about 2,00,000 postal articles a year and where most of the mailing work is concentrated over 6-7 months. The reasons for this are: (*i*) The franking machines have a limited capacity so far as the value of stamps is concerned. (*ii*) The mechanism is to be adjusted time and again to suit the requirements of individual envelopes. This has proved cumbersome and time-consuming. (*iii*) The office labour for the purpose is fairly cheap and hence also the reluctance of the office to use these machines.

6. *Entering in dak despatch register, outwards mail register or post book.* Before letters are posted, a record may be kept in the "Dak Despatch Register" or "Outwards Mail Register." The Despatch Register is ruled in a columnar form for entering details like the serial number, date, the name of the addressee, enclosure, subject and the value of stamps used regarding each letter. Such a register is no longer in use in large offices because such a register slows down the work due to the elaborate details that have to be entered for each letter. It has been replaced by a Stamp Book or Post Book, which has the following rulings.

Date	*Stamps in Hand* Rs	P	*Date*	*No*	*Name*	*Address*	*Stamp*		*Remarks*
1978 Jan. 2	100	00	1978 Jan. 2	610	A. Ghosh	Tilak Marg New Delhi		25	
			,,	611	Jain & Co. Ltd.	Marine Lines, Bombay	2	50	Regd.A.D.
Jan. 3	96	00	,,	612	Sen & Mitra Ltd.	N.S. Road Calcutta	1	25	Recorded delivery

The Post Book is an ideal combination of the entry for the record of posting of a letter and the amount of postage spent on it. Besides,

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it serves as the control device for checking the total postage expenditure incurred by the organisation, especially in a large organisation with a huge allocation for postage. The stamps account in the Book is kept on the *imprest system*, in which an imprest amount or stamps of a given amount are given to the despatch clerk every week, every fortinght or every month depending on the needs of the organisation. After the fixed period, the amount of stamps or cash exhausted is replenished. Normally the despatch clerk should balance the stamps account everyday before the closing time. Further, if possible, there should be separate accounts for stamps of different denominations. Where number of despatch clerks is more than one, the *total stamps account* is maintained by the supervisor while each clerk maintains his own separate account, draws the stamps on the imprest system and renders the account every day or every week.

7. *Posting and delivery.* Final act in despatch concerns the posting and delivey of letters. Some of the letters are to be delivered through messengers. Such letters are entered into a peon book and the receiver acknowledges by signing at the time of delivery. Of the sorted post, the ordinary post should be sent to the nearest post box at regular intervals during the day depending on how often the mail is collected from the different departments. Special categories of mail like 'registered' mail, recorded delivery mail, etc., are to be sent to the nearrest Post Office, which can accommodate such mail. Such mail is usually accepted up to a given time, usually 3 p. m. In bigger cities even late registration facilities are available at many Zonal Post Offices and the General Post Office, but they should be used only in dire emergency. The use of late registration is expensive—special staff getting over-time allowance is deputed and the additional transport cost for going to the Post Office is to be incurred. Thus it is desirable to avoid emergency posting as far as possible. A schedule for sending letters to the Post Office must be prepared and each department should know about it so that rush work is avoided towards the end of the day. The peon or clerk concerned should leave the office for the Post Office at fixed regular intervals. Great care should be taken so that the peon or clerk carrying post leaves the office at the proper time, otherwise effort involved would be wasted and the costs will increase.

Rules for Outwards Mail Department

Wherever a separate Outwards Mail Department (or Section) exists in an organisation, it would be necessary to frame rules for its efficient functioning. Following guidelines are suggested for such rules:

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1. Good links must be established with the departmental managers so that they lay down firm procedures about outwards mail. Thus late despatch of "emergency" correspondence will be reduced to a minimum.

2. Collection times and collection points should be clearly specified and complied with rigorously.

3. The staff must be trained to mark in pencil (or red pen, etc.) in the top right hand corner all special mail, *i.e.*, registered mail, foreign mail, air mail, etc.

4. All first class mail should be rubber stamped "First Class" in the top left hand corner.

5. Proper practices should be established for recording important letters before they are despatched, and for checking the enclosures by the clerk responsible for folding and sealing mail after signature.

6. Procedures should be laid down for recording the use of adhesive stamps; and wherever possible franking machines should be used.

7. Strict rules must be prepared to prevent the despatch of private letters at the expense of the organisation.

8. Rules should be framed for recording and preserving receipts from the post office for registered letters and parcels, V. P. P. parcels and packets, etc.

9. Responsibilities for other work in the Section must be clearly stated.

QUESTIONS

1. What is meant by office correspondence? How would you organise correspondence in the office?

2. "Centralisation of correspondence is better than its decentralisation". Discuss.

3. "Proper drafting is the soul of correspondence." Comment on this statement by taking into consideration the factors involved in drafting.

4. "Dictating letters to secretary still remains the single most important method of dictating letters in our office." Discuss.

5. You are the office manager. The M.D. of your company wants to introduce an appropriate system of correspondence. Make suitable suggestions.

6. Write critical notes on the use of (*a*) Form letters, (*b*) Standard paragraphs; (*c*) Dictating machines.

7. "Typing pool has more advantages than the departmental typing." Do you agree with this statement or not? Give reasons for your answer.

8. What is mailing service? State how would you plan mailing service?

9. Outline the procedure for handling incoming mail.

10. You are the mailing supervisor in a large mail-order business house. Recommend a routine for inwards mail to your office controller.

11. Outline the functions of the despatch section.

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12. Write notes on: (*a*) Franking machine; and (*b*) Centralisation of inwards and outwards mail.

13. Give the rules for outwards mail department.

14. Draw up a detailed procedure for an effective and efficient control over the outward mail of an organisation. Name the various equipments being used in centralised outward mail section.

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Chapter 18

OFFICE STATIONERY AND SUPPLIES AND THEIR CONTROL

NEED FOR CONTROL OF OFFICE STATIONERY AND SUPPLIES

IT is necessary to control office stationery and supplies effectively on account of a number of reasons, which are summarised below:

1. Cost

Stationery and supplies are a costly item. As the time passes, items of stationery and supplies are becoming more numerous and are costing more and more to the organisation. In fact, stationery and supplies cost a lot in terms of purchase price, proper storage and proper issue. In some organisations, stationery and supplies have huge budgets. Thus there is the need for their proper control at all times.

2. Right Type of Supplies

It is necessary that the right type of stationery and supplies is bought. Bad writing paper, poor carbons, ill-sized envelopes, etc., result in wastage and also leave a very poor impression in the minds of their users as well as in the minds of the customers and public at large.

3. Availability

It is desirable that stationery and supplies are available at all times in adequate quantity. Besides, it would also be essential not to overstock a particular stationery. Over-stocking has two major drawbacks: *first*, more storage space is needed, and *second*, funds of the organisation get blocked unnecessarily.

In spite of the need for a proper control of stationery, modern managements have paid little attention to stationery and supplies.

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Denyer sums up the situation in these words: "While modern management and its work-study experts are greatly concerned about what is put on office forms, and about the number of them in existence, it has been estimated that the cost of ordering, issuing and storing of stationery in the average office can be reduced by 25 per cent." The reason why proper control of stationery and supplies has not received any attention is that the management is worried more about the other more obvious costs, like the salaries of the office staff, rents, costs of equipment and machines, etc. Thus the cost of supplies is relegated into the background.

DIFFERENT KINDS OF STATIONERY

Stationery and supplies are needed by every type of office, whether big or small. Supplies of different kinds needed by the office are writing papers, carbon papers, pads, computer rolls, teleprinter rolls, duplicating papers, inks, pens, pencils, ball-point pens and refills, nibs, stencils, gum, stamps, stamp pads, typewriting ribbons, ink and pencil erasers, cellotape, staplers, pins and clippers, sealing wax, tags, rubber bands, registers, file covers, file boards, file boxes, etc. These items are available in different qualities, shapes and sizes and under different brand names.

Paper is the centre of action in an office and it is needed for many purposes, which are as follows:

(*i*) Letterheads of different types—small, medium and business size;
(*ii*) Writing pads;
(*iii*) Slip or sctrach pads;
(*iv*) Printed and cyclostyled forms of different categories;
(*v*) Plain paper sheets for typing reports or continuing long letters;
(*vi*) Thin second sheets or 'copy sheets' with the word COPY embossed across;
(*vii*) Thin sheets or manila sheets for typing rough drafts;
(*viii*) Thin sheets for second copies;
(*ix*) Stencil paper; and
(*x*) Duplicating paper.

ESSENTIAL REQUIREMENTS FOR A GOOD SYSTEM OF DEALING WITH STATIONERY

There are many possibilities of waste in handling of office stationery and supplies. It is thus essential that utmost care should be taken

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to control (*i*) the selection, *(ii)* purchasing, *(iii)* storing, *(iv)* issuing, and *(v)* using of the office supplies. In the words of L.H. Brigham, "The plan of purchase, stocking, distribution and control of use determines whether or not a company is exercising all reasonable economy concerning necessary stationery and office supplies."[1] In order to control the stationery and supplies effectively, the following essentials are to be considered.

PROPER AND CAREFUL SELECTION

Selection is a step towards purchasing supplies. *Selection is the process of choosing the right type of supplies which suit the purpose for which they are meant.* Broadly speaking, *two* types of supplies are available in the market: *(i) The standardised branded products* with a reputation for good quality and consequently good results; and *(ii)* The *non-standardised* little known products with unknown or inferior quality and consequently bad results. The unknown non-standardised products are cheap to buy but may prove to be very costly both in real and money terms. For example, inferior duplicating paper may be good for cyclostyling only on one side of the sheet while both the sides of a better quality duplicating paper may be used. It would be, therefore, advisable to buy proven standardised products. Once a product has been adopted and its quality is confirmed through constant use, it should not be discarded in favour of a new product. However, supplies go on changing and new products go on appearing in the market. In these circumstances, samples of these products should be constantly tested to evaluate their cost-benefit. This would give an idea whether a particular product should be replaced or continued.

PURCHASING

Buying of supplies is the very basis of the smooth functioning of the office. Only supplies of proper quality and grade allow for good and efficient work in the office. However, buying today is not so simple. In the words of Brech,[2] "Buying is very much a specialist activity. It calls for commercial acumen . . . ." In a large commercial office or government office purchase of supplies is a very important activity.

Proper buying of supplies *aims* at the following:

1. Discovering sources of supplies. Purchasing aims at discovering

[1]Quoted by Leffingwell and Robinson, *op. cit.*
[2]Brech, *op. cit.*

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dependable sources of purchase which are capable of supplying the required stationery regularly. In other words, all the alternative sources of supplies must be discoverd. There are many sources of stationey—from the local stores to the manufacturers' representatives. Local stores normally do not have all brands and qualities of all types of supplies. They have a limited range of products to offer. As a result they may not prove very useful except for a limited number of products in limited quantities. Then there are representatives of supply agencies, who visit the office with price lists, catalogues and samples to obtain orders. Again these supply agencies deal in limited grades of products. This restricts their usefulness. However, there are many supply firms which give supplies according to special requirements of an office.

It has become quite common with large manufacturers of stationery products to have their own branches in big cities, *e.g.*, Kores India, Bharat Ribbon and Carbon, India Duplicator Co. (Gestetner), etc., have a number of branches in different cities. Their sales representatives visit offices regularly to book orders as well as to acquaint the office manager with the latest in supplies. The manufacturers manufacture standardised branded products which can also be procured from many of the local stationery stores and supply agencies. Many manufacturers and some large agency houses mail literature on office supplies regularly. The office would do well to file this properly and also keep a complete list of supplies.

2. Buying cheaply. Efficient buying means buying cheaply. It is the job of the purchasing officer, office manager or any other person responsible for the purchase of supplies to buy them at the lowest cost. However, best value for money cannot be obtained through lowest price. It can be obtained in one of the following ways: *(i)* By getting a better product at the same cost; *(ii)* By getting the same product at a lower cost; *(iii)* By paying a higher price for a much higher quality product; and *(iv)* By paying much less for a lower quality product where this lower quality is quite adequate for the purpose in view.

3. Buying the correct quantity. It is necessary to purchase stationery in correct quantities. The *maximum level* and the *minimum level* or the *re-order level* of stock of every item should be determined rationally taking into account factors like normal average consumption, the number of days for which supply is to be held in hand and the time needed to obtain supplies. Purchase of supplies in correct quantities is necessary due to many reasons, more important of which are: *(i)* Regular flow of supplies ensures smooth functioning of the office

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and elimination of delays and stoppages of work. (*ii*) Supplies are to be viewed as something that creates problems of storage. Over-purchase needs more storage space which is a very costly service in the organisation. (*iii*) Over-stocking may render the supplies less useful, *e.g.*, paper may turn yellow and brittle. (*iv*) Purchasing more than a certain level blocks the capital which is scarce resource in every enterprise.

Review of stock levels. The maximum and minimum levels of different types of supplies must be reviewed from time to time in the light of changing situation and work experience.

4. Buying the desired quality of supplies. It would not be enough to determine sources of supplies and fixation of levels of supplies in the stores etc. alone, it is also essential to buy supplies of the desired quality. Supplies of good quality ensure smoother functioning, lesser consumption and consequently lesser office overheads. The qualities of supplies to be bought are greatly influenced by the purpose for which they are to be used, *e. g.*, even an inferior type of paper can be used where certain papers are to be retained for a very short period of time.

5. Buying at the right time. The supplies must be bought at the right time. As soon as the minimum level or the reorder level is reached, the order must be placed without loss of time. Buying at the right time is very necessary to eliminate delays and consequent loss of work. The time at which certain supplies are to be bought depends upon: (*i*) reaching the reorder level; (*ii*) the time that the suppliers usually take to supply; and (*iii*) the possibility of shortage of certain supplies in future, in which case purchasing may have to be done even before the minimum level is reached.

Organisation and Management of Purchases: Centralised *versus* Decentralised Purchasing

Careful and proper organisation of purchasing is very important to achieve its aims. Supplies can be purchased in one of the following *two* ways:

(*i*) **Centralised purchasing.** In centralised purchasing supplies are bought by the central purchasing department located at one place, usually the Head Office or Registered Office of the organisation. In the case of government department, this work is the responsibility of the Stationery and Printing Departments. Centralised purchasing is an arrangement in which processes of purchases, *i.e.*, selection, ordering and procurement, etc., are centralised.

(*ii*) **Decentralised purchasing.** Decentralised purchasing is an arrange-

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ment in which processes of purchasing are decentralised. Each branch, each division or each department of the organisation has to make its own arrangement for the purchase of supplies. Each branch, each division or each department has its own separate purchase section for the purchase of stationery and supplies. In other words, the authority and responsibility for purchasing have been decentralised.

The decision to centralise or decentralise purchasing of stationery and supplies must be taken after due thought since both the methods of buying offer a number of advantages and suffer from a number of disadvantages.

Advantages of centralised purchasing. As a method of organising supplies in the office, centralised purchasing offers many advantages, chief of which are as follows:

1. *Specialist function.* Centrally organised Purchasing Section or Department allows for specialisation of purchasing function. This allows the organisation to evaluate various available supplies thoroughly and pick up the most reliable product and the source of supply.

2. *Lower costs.* Centralised buying means buying in bulk. Thus savings in costs are made. Buying in bulk means lower purchase price per unit, availing *quantity discounts* and saving on freight, insurance, etc. Buying can be done directly from the suppliers assuring lower costs and constant supplies.

3. *Better budgetary control.* Centralised purchasing allows for better budgetary control since a single Purchasing Officer supervises the purchases.

4. *Help in standardisation of forms.* Centralised purchasing also makes it possible to standardise forms, which may prove a great boon to the organisation.

Disadvantages of centralised purchasing. Centralised purchasing has the following disadvantages.

1. *Greater cost of organisation.* The overhead cost of organising centralised purchases may be very high since separate staff and accompanying facilities will have to be provided for the purpose. Thus a smaller organisation with scattered departments may find it very costly to have a centralised purchasing department.

2. *Lack of flexibility.* Centralisation of stationery purchasing lacks flexibility in more than one respect. Centralisation may result in poor response to urgent requests for supplies. Besides, the quality of supplies may not suit the purpose for which they have been purchased because of lack of knowledge of requirements.

3. *Unsuited for dispersed units divisions/branches/departments.*

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The method may prove to be inadequate where different consuming departments are located wide apart, *e.g.*, in different cities.

Advantages of decentralised purchasing. Decentralised purchasing has its own advantages. It has flexibility and cuts delays. The exact supplies needed by a department are ordered direct on the basis of its needs. The purchasing route is, therefore, shortened. It is best suited to organisations with decentralised functioning. Besides, purchasing being decentralised, the overheads associated with centralisation are eliminated.

Disadvantages of decentralised purchasing. The decentralised purchasing suffers from a number of disadvantages. Decentralistion does not allow purchasing to become a specialist function. Besides, the benefits of buying in bulk cannot be enjoyed.

In practice, both the methods should be combined to have the best results, wherever possible. For example, in the case of bank with a large number of branches scattered all over the country, the centralised purchasing has to be combined with local or decentralised purchasing. Blank cheques and drafts are printed at one place and then despatched to branches, while some other requirements may be bought locally. If the two methods are to be combined, it would be proper to define the scope of the two methods of purchasing so that there is proper co-ordination.

Purhcase Procedure

Whatever be the method of organisation of purchasing, it is necessary to have a scientific procedure for the purchase of stationery and supplies in the office. The following procedure is suggested for their purchase:

1. Receipt of requisition. A requisition is to be sent by the department needing the stationery to the Purchasing Department. Where there is central storage of stationery and supplies, the requisition should be sent by the store-keeper on reaching the minimum level.

2. Determining purchase requirements. Before placing the order, it is necessary to consider *factors* such as these: the exact quantity in hand, rate of consumption, the time needed to get the supplies, the name of the previous supplier and his terms and the price paid. Every item of stationery bought in the past must be followed up to evaluate its quality and uses. For this purpose, the user departmental heads must be contacted constantly. Suggestions received from the users must be considered carefully and necessary changes suggested in the matter of supplies may be incorporated. It is needless to say that a monopoly item will have to be bought from the old source and the

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suggestions for improvements may be passed on to the manufacturers.

3. Determining sources and prices. Sources of supplies are now to be contacted to get quotations. The old and well-tried suppliers may be approched for getting the necessary quotations. Discovery of new and better sources of supplies is one of the basic functions of the purchasing department. Therefore, every effort should be made to discover new sources of supplies. Where supplies are needed in bulk, a newspaper advertisement may help in the discovery of new sources of supplies. It would be better to call for samples from the ew suppliers to evaluate their supplies. The price and terms and conditions of supplies are now to be determined. In doing so, it would be better to negotiate with more than one source at the same time.

In the government offices tender notices are issued specifying terms and conditions. The suppliers respond to these notices and the orders are placed thereafter.

4. Placing order. An order will now be placed with the firm or firms selected. Usually in large organisations order forms exist or they must be devised for placing order. Four copies (or even more) of the order should be prepared to be dealt with as follows: One copy is sent to the supplier; another copy is sent to the Gatekeeper as advance warning to expect the supplies; a third copy should be sent to the Store-keeper; and the fourth copy is to be retained in the Purchasing Department for record purposes. The order form contains the names of both parties to the contract of supplies; clear and complete description of goods or services needed along with price, discount, colour, and terms of carriage, etc., instructions regarding time and place of delivery; the date and reference number; and a warning that no goods are accepted unless supplied against a signed order.

5. Reminders and follow-up. Once orders have been placed, it would be proper to follow them up so that supplies are obtained on time. Reminders should be sent and definite action on supplies must be invited. If the supplier fails to supply the goods in a reasonable time, it would be better to look for an alternative source immediately if no proper response is forthcoming. The suppliers, who prove unreliable, must be removed from the list of suppliers so that the organisation may not be made to suffer again.

6. Receipt of supplies. On receiving the goods one copy of the order form, which becomes a Goods Receipts Note, is passed on to the purchasing department. The relevant entries should now be made in the Stationery and Supplies Register under appropriate head.

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Where special supplies were requisitioned by certain departments, they must be informed immediately. The Goods Receipts Note will be the basis on which the accounts department will be told to make payments to suppliers.

Standardising Office Stationery

Standardisation is an important aspect of stationery. Standardisation means that goods are identical in terms of quality, size and description. Standardisation of stationery for use in the office offers a number of advantages, more important of which are: (*i*) *Lower prices*, *(ii) Interchangeability* for use; *(iii) Improved stocks* and supplies. For example, different types of writing paper may be bought by different departments for similar type of work. Standardisation of the writing paper would reduce the cost of purchase besides providing a guideline to different departments as to the paper to be used. Similarly for cyclostyling paper, certain qualities of such paper cannot be cyclostyled properly on both the sides. Thus rigorous standard is to be laid down for the purchase of such a paper. A marginal addition to the cost of paper would lead to considerable saving in cost if both sides of the paper can be used. Almost for every item of stationery standards can be laid down.

How to lay down standards? In order to standardise requirements for stationery and supplies, the following points may be considered:

1. *Suggestions* are to be invited from the departments regarding the standards they expect of various items of stationery.

2. The Office Manager should initiate *evaluation of requirements* and narrow them down to a few types of the same item. In doing so, the systems department or section should also be consulted since it is this department or section that lays the routines for different types of jobs.

3. *Contacting the suppliers* is the next point to be considered. This is done to find out the prices and availability of different items.

STORAGE OF STATIONERY AND SUPPLIES

Stationery and supplies are an important item of cost of office work. While much attention may be paid to the handling of cash in the office, proper handling of stationery and supplies may be considered an unimportant matter. This attitude may prove very costly. Proper storage *aims* at the following: (*i*) *Minimisation of losses.* Losses on account of moisture, pilferage, etc., are minimised. (*ii*) *Issue of Stores at will.* Minimum time should be needed to issue the stores

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for consumption in the departments. (*iii*) *Ease in stock-taking.* It would be desirable to have storage in a manner that stock-taking may be done with great ease. (*iv*) *Data availability.* The method of storage should be such that different types of data concerning stocks may be available instantly for various purposes, *e.g.*, data relating to re-order levels, cash of stationery etc.

Proper location of the store room is important since the stationery is used by all the departments of the office. The store room should be so located that it is easily approachable from all directions. A central location is, therefore, better from this point of view. Another factor to be considered is the type of room to be used for stores. A room which may be unfit to seat many people may be used. Besides, it should be so located that heavy supplies are easily moved into and out of stores whenever the need arises.

Arrangement in the Storeroom

Proper arrangement of stationery and supplies is necessary to have easy access and instant issue; and to avoid delays and losses. The stationery can be stored in cupboards and cabinets; and on open shelves. The nature of stationery would determine the use of one or the other. The loose and costly items must be stored inside a cupboard or cabinet while large and packed and sealed boxes of stationery can be put on "racks". There should be a systematic arrangement of items to have quick location. In order to achieve quick location, following steps should be taken:

1. *Similar items* should be put at one place.
2. *Items in greater demand* should have the most convenient location so that they are issued at will.
3. *Heavy items* like typewriters, heaters, fans, etc., should be so placed that they require minimum effort to store and issue.
4. A *list* of all stationery and supplies should be pasted on the inside of the door of the cupboard or cabinet. Where open shelves are there, the individual items' name should be pasted along the shelves.
5. Stationery in packets should have *identifying marks or a sample* of their contents should be fixed in front.
6. Loose supplies should be put in marked open *boxes.* The unpadded stationery should be put in open-end boxes in a flip-up position.
7. It would be better to number the shelves consecutively and a loose-leaf or card index should be kept up-to-date, from which the relative shelf number for any item can be obtained to locate it.

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Some Practical Hints for Storage

Many of the forms, pads, letter heads, bill books, etc., are supplied by the printers and suppliers in packets. Before placing orders for such items, the suppliers may be told to put a specific number in each packet so that counting for stock-taking and reorder is facilitated. It would be ideal if uniformity is followed regarding number in each packet, *e.g.*, ten bill books in each packet, ten letterheads in each packet, and so on. The packets or boxes may be opened one by one for issue and the wrappers, boxes and other packing material should be removed from the shelves to keep them tidy. Where certain packets have broken wrappers, etc., they should be used first. The suppliers should be told about the damage of wrappers so that they are more careful in future. Sometimes the number of torn wrappers may be very large, in such a case the items should be re-wrapped.

The packets should be placed on the open shelves or in the cabinets in piles of equal number so that stock-taking is done quickly. For piling, left hand corner of the shelf should be used first. Where the rows of piles are more than one, the one at the back must be completed first; and while issuing, the front-most row must be consumed first. The number contained in each packet should be clearly indicated on the packet and the packet should be so placed that the number of items indicated should be visible by mere inspection. The minimum level or reorder level should be clearly indicated and the packets forming part of the reorder level should be marked with the warning (or information) that the minimum level has been reached. This is done to assure replenishment of supplies and unhindered flow of work.

Stationery Records

Maintenance of proper records of stationery and supplies in the stores is very essential. This can be considered as a control device. Stationery records will indicate the quantity of supplies bought and their issue to the departments or individuals. A Stationery Record Register or Stationery Register must be maintained. In the factory stores, records of items is maintained in the Stores Ledger. As a matter of fact, there is hardly any difference between the two. The Stationery Register can be called the Stationery Stores Ledger as well. It is ruled in columnar form providing separate columns for receipts, issues and balance in hand at each successive receipt or issue on a given date. Besides, separate columns are provided for the requisition number, the name of the department requisitioning supplies and other particulars of issue. Where it is necessary to determine the quantity of stationery consumed by each department, it would be better

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if separate registers are maintained, one for each department, for the issue of the stores. The idea can be further stretched where a few pages are allotted to each individual in every department. The maintenance of separate registers for each department can help the office manager to control the issue of stationery to various departments.

Record of office machines and equipment. It is quite likely that some of the office machines like typewriters, calculators, etc., may be a part of the stationery stores as it is in many government and semi-government offices. Some of the other costly items like fans, heaters, coolers, etc., may also be a part of the stores. It would be better to maintain a separate Stores Register for such items and the issues are recorded against individuals who have been issued with these items.

Use of stock cards. It is still quite fashionable for most of our organisations to keep Stores Register in a bound form. In the USA, England, Japan and other advanced countries, this practice has been discarded in favour of stock records being kept on a card index system, preferably on a visible index system. Such a practice offers a number of advantages, for example, (*i*) the register is bulky and hence presents problems in its handling; (*ii*) the register can be used by only one person at a time, while the cards can be used by many persons at the same time; and (*iii*) the cards provide a framework for perpetual inventory.

Stock-Taking

Stock-taking of stationery is an important control function. The stock-taking can be done in one of the two ways (the same as those applied to the factory stores), which are explained below:

1. Stock-taking at the end of the financial year. As the name implies, the stationery stocks are physically counted and valued at the end of the financial year for the financial year for the purpose of preparing the financial accounts. This method of stock-taking has a number of drawbacks, chief of which are: (*i*) Periodic review of stocks is not possible. Such a review is essential to eliminate old stocks or "dead" stocks. (*ii*) Annual stock-taking exercise is bound to put a great pressure of work since it must be treated as a special operation. Persons conducting the stock-taking are to be briefed. Besides, the accounts department will be under added strain since it may be busy with the closing aspect of the financial year, (*iii*) Frauds and misappropriations can never be discovered in time.

2. Perpetual inventory stock-taking. To overcome the drawbacks

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of the annual stock-taking, perpetual inventory method of stock-taking, also known as continuous stock-taking method, should be used. A random sample technique is employed for this purpose. The method is outlined as follows: The store-keeper examines and physically counts the stock of a number of different items every day. This he goes on doing till after some period all the items are counted. Thus he physically checks all items of stores say at least 3-4 (or even more) times in a year. Where stock-taking is not done by the store-keeper, the work may be entrusted to people from the accounts department. In such a case, items are selected at random for stock-taking. This eliminates the possibility of having only a "book stock". If stock-taking is entrusted to the store-keeper, it would be essential to carry out occasional audits by independent persons.

A few more points to be considered in relation to stock-taking are: *(i)* Where certain items are subject to *pilferage*, or of special value, their stock-taking should be done more frequently. *(ii)* If certain items are not used frequently, or are *inactive items*, it would be ideal to prepare a separate list for them with details regarding their issues, so that the office manager may review the position of their purchase. *(iii)* Since maximum and minimum limits of stocks are laid down, it would be better if periodical checks are carried out to see whether they are followed. *(iv)* If *differences* between the actual stocks and recorded stocks are discovered, they should be reported immediately to the office manager so that appropriate action is taken and stock records in cash are adjusted.

Stock Valuation for Stationery

Like the factory stores, valuation of stationery and supplies stock is necessary for the purpose of the financial statements. Stationery stocks are of immense value in organisations like banks and insurance companies. They may represent a substantial investment in such organisations.

Methods of valuing stock. In England the stock is to be valued at cost price or current selling price, whichever is lower[1] for tax purposes. In our country too this practice is followed by and large.

There are many methods of valuing stationery stock. They are as follows:

(a) Cost price is the invoice price at which the goods have been bought.

(b) Current purchase price is the price at which stocks are to be

[1]Freeman, Hardy and Willis *v.* Ridgway, (1969).

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replaced.

(*c*) *Average cash price* is the average of the prices at which various purchases have been made.

(*d*) *Last price* (*FIFO*) *method* is the method under which stock is valued at the last price in for equivalent quantities.

The accounting department should be approached to make suitable suggestions regarding the method of stationery valuation to be adopted since that would reflect (*i*) what the top management thinks about valuation of stock in general, and (*ii*) also the legal provisions which are to be satisfied for the purpose.

ISSUING STATIONERY

Features of Issue System

Issue of stationery is an important aspect of management of supplies. System of stationery issue should have the following *essentials*: (*i*) It should be *simple and well-planned.* (*ii*) It should ensure *economy* of time and labour. (*iii*) It should meet with the *audit standards* fixed for such purpose. (*iv*) The system should be *well-balanced.* In other words, the system should ensure a regular but well-regulated supply of stores. Denyer summarises this aspect in these words: ". . .while this issuing system must be reasonable in its operation it must not be so liberal that separate stationery stores are built up."

Procedure of Issue of Stationery

Considering the above essential features of a system of issue of stationery, the following procedure of issuing stationery and other stores may be followed, where stores are centralised:

1. Written requisition. Written requisition for stores must be made. It should be signed by the person authorised to do so. A list of such persons must be with the stores.

2. Time of issue. It is essential to fix up days for the issue of stationery. It could be, say, once in a week, once in a fortnight or even once in a month. This is desirable to put the least burden on the store-keeper and allow him to look after other activities of the stores. In a large organisation, with a number of branches, divisions or departments, different days are allocated to each of them for sending their requisitions. However, emergency needs must be honoured and stores are issued on any day during the week.

3. Delivery at work-place. The stores should preferably be delivered to the person concerned, instead of the person requisitioning them to call for them. The store-keeper must make suitable arrangement

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for delivery at work-places. Such an arrangement reduces wastage of working time.

4. Issue units. The store-keeper would do well if he prepares units of issue in advance, especially if the stationery is to be issued to departments in larger quantities. The units may be in tens or dozens or half dozens, etc. In most cases much of the stationery comes in pre-packed condition. However, items like writing paper will have to be put into bundles of (say) 100 sheets for the purpose of issue to individuals. All this is necessary to facilitate issue of stores.

5. Recording issue. As soon as the stationery is issued, it should be recorded in books. There can be a separate Stationery Issue Register in which entries are made either chronologically (*i.e.*, date-wise), individual or department-wise. The details should also be entered into the Stationery Stock Register against appropriate headings. Where records are kept on visible card index system, the entries are to be made in the cards.

6. Preparing purchase requisition. The Stationery Stock Register (or records cards) indicates the state of stocks of different items. Thus as soon as the reorder level is reached for a given item, purchase requisition must be prepared for forwarding it to the appropriate authority. Where the store-keeper is authorised to prepare the purchase order, he should do so immediately and send it to the suppliers.

Centralised Stores *versus* Decentralised Stores

The problem of issue from decentralised stores is the same as that from the centralised stores. Decentralisation of stores is only a step towards decentralisation of office. For example, within the factory, the factory office is located and it may have its independent stationery stores. Similarly other operating departments may have their own stationery stores. In practice, there may be a centralised stores responsible for ordering and disbursement of stationery amongst the departments, division or branches. The procedure for issue of stores to be followed in a departmental stationey store will be the same as that followed in the centralised store.

"**Honour system**" of issuing stationery is being followed in the case of certain private sector organisations. Under this system, the office staff is allowed to draw as much stationery as they like. This introduces an element of prestige and self-respect. It is said that the staff react favourably and the consumption rate is fairly low. Such an experiment is yet to be conducted on a wide scale. In the government offices, with their accent on economy, it may not be possible to introduce such a system.

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CONTROL AND REGULATION OF CONSUMPTION[1]

Since stationery is quite a costly item, it is necessary that its consumption is properly regulated and controlled. Certain items of stationery are over-consumed, while many others may be over-stocked by the clerks to be carried home. There are cases where writing paper, rubbers, pencils, erasers, carbon paper, sharpeners, pins, clips, typewriter ribbons and a variety of other items find their way to the homes of the staff members. The problem of regulating consumption is very important in a large office since the number of clerical workers may run into hundreds or even thousands.

Procedure to Control and Regulate the Consumption of Stationery

Following procedure is suggested to control and regulate consumption of stationery:

1. Placing responsibility for signing requisitions. The privilege of signing requisitions should be granted to departmental/section/branch heads or other responsible persons; and they should be impressed with the responsibility placed on them. They should, therefore, scrutinise each requisition carefully before signing it. They should question excessive use and even ask for details of consumption to check misuse.

2. Charging the cost to the receiving department. It is desirable to keep a department-wise account of consumption of stationery. This is necessary to keep a check on the wasteful consumption of stationery by different departments.[2] The department head can be apprised of the consumption and he can initiate steps to stop extravagant use of stationery.

3. Small packets of small items. Small items like rubber bands, pins, clips, staples, etc., should be supplied in small packets. The suppliers may be told to supply such items in small packets. Such a step reduces undue wastage of these small items.

4. Use of mechanical pencils and ball-point and fountain pens. It may be very economical to use ball-point pens, fountain pens and mechanical pencils. It has been estimated that not more than one third of the lead in a pencil is used due to constant sharpening. Thus mechanical pencils would mean a reduction in expenditure. Use of fountain pens and ball-point pens helps in economising in more than one respect—the blotting papers are not needed, and constant filling in

[1] Leffingwell and Robinson, *op. cit.*, pp. 248-56.

[2] Incidentally, this would also help to ascertain the exact direct cost of operating a department.

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of the inkpot or inkwell is not needed.

5. **Careful selection of typewriter ribbons.** A lot of work in a modern office is being done on the typewriter. Thus the typewriter ribbons must be selected with great care. Many makes of ribbons are available in the market and the best must be selected. In order to select the right type of ribbon, a "*wear-down test*" should be given. This test is given by using only a small portion of a ribbon and the result is noted down to check its quality. Two other factors to be noted are the quality of the ribbon fabric and the heaviness of the inking. The inking of the ribbons may be light, medium or heavy. Light-inked ribbons should be used for the *elite* type, while medium-inked ribbon is good for large, *pica* type. A heavy-inked and heavy fabric ribbon is needed for heavier billing and accounting machines. Where heavy fabric ribbons are used, they may not wear out but their impression may fade. In such cases, the ribbons can be re-inked for re-use. Wherever a policy of re-inking of ribbons is followed, the office manager should devise a suitable procedure for third re-inking. Re-inking is seldom done in most of our offices.

Two-colour ribbons (usually red and black) are available in the market. They used to be very popular but now they are not in common use. It is a common experience that the red part of the ribbon remains serviceable due to little use, while the black (or blue) part of the ribbon is worn out completely. Hence extra cost paid for the two colour ribbons goes waste. Thus, as far as possible, their use should be avoided.

Fresh ribbons are issued against the return of old ribbons. This practice can be conveniently followed in a small organisation. In a bigger organisation, a machanic may be employed to change the ribbons, which will save clerical time spent in making an unnecessary trip to the storeroom.

6. **Proper choice of carbon papers.** Every office uses a large quantity of carbon papers. There are many grades of carbon papers available in the market for a number of jobs. Proper choice of carbon paper is necessary to save on cost and to obtain the desired quality of work. There are *five* factors to be considered while choosing the carbon paper, *viz.*, sharpness of writing, cleanliness, intensity of colour, legibility and durability.

Each carbon paper has two basic characteristics, which are: the weight, and the finish. Satisfactory results can be expected if the carbon paper of right finish and weight is selected for typewriting. On the basis of weight, there are at least five grades of carbon papers, from light weight to heavy weight for typewriters. The choice of

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weight would depend upon the number of copies to be made. A light weight carbon would give a larger number of copies, but would wear down quickly. On the other hand, a heavy weight carbon paper may give a smaller number of copies but would be more durable. It would be ideal to use a standard intermediate weight carbon for average work.

The degree in inking results in five finishes. They are: extra hard, hard, medium hard, medium and intense. Their uses are listed below:

Extra hard for sharp and legible copies on heavy bond paper.
Hard for 4 copies at one writing on medium weight paper.
Medium hard for 1 to 6 good copies on common paper.
Medium for 6 to 12 good copies on a reasonably thin paper.
Intense for making up to 20-25 copies on issue paper.[1]

Testing carbon papers is possible only in large well-equipped offices. Therefore, if an office is not equipped to test carbon papers, it would be desirable to buy them from reputed and reliable manufacturers only. The manufacturers should be informed about the needs of the organisation regarding weight and finish and number of copies needed on the typewriter.

Pencil carbon papers are also needed for preparing copies from pencils and ball-point pens. Such carbon papers are usually heavier and have a harder inking.

To save on comsumption, it may be desirable to issue not more than a week's supply of carbon paper to an individual.

7. **Standardising ink, glue, and paste etc.** Only the right type of these items should be used. In our own country, these items have been standardised to a great extent. Many big manufacturers of these items market products of good quality. Golden rule about ink is: buy only one brand.

Gum paste and glue, etc., have a considerable use in the office; but they are used intermittently. Therefore, it is necessary to provide suitable receptacles so that they do not dry up quickly. These items should be bought in large bottles or kgs and each person may be supplied with a small bottle and a brush or spreader. This small bottle is filled up with one inch of paste from time to time. In most offices, inkwells or inkpots are filled up by office boys if a messenger service is maintained in the office for this purpose to save on clerical time. Messenger service is quite a common feature of the Government and other offices in our country. The inkwell is slowly and

[1]This variety is often used on electric typewriters.

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gradually giving way to the ball-point pen. With its neatness and large refills, the ball-point pens are proving a boon for the office employee.

8. Saving on scratch pads. Every office makes use of scratch pads for a number of purposes. Some of the scratch pads offered by stationery stores are made of costly bond paper although they are made from the trimmings and are, therefore, available very cheaply. A better way would be to buy flat writing paper for such pads so that is takes the pen and pencil well and also costs little.

QUESTIONS

1. "Office stationery and supplies must be properly controlled." Discuss.
2. Discuss in brief the essentials of a good system of dealing with stationery.
3. As the office manager, suggest a suitable procedure for the purchase of stationery in your office.
4. Discuss how would you organise purchasing of stationery and supplies? Would you recommend centralised purchasing for a bank with a number of branches.
5. Discuss the problem of standardisation of stationery.
6. Write a note on the storage and storeroom for stationery and equipment.
7. How would you keep records for office stationery, equipment and machines? Which method of valuation of stationery would you recommend and why?
8. Outline a scientific system for the issue of stationery in an office.
9. "It is essential to control and regulate the consumption of stationery." Comment. Outline an efficient procedure for controlling and regulating the consumption of stationery.
10. Write notes on: (*a*) Centralised versus decentralised storage of stationery; (*b*) Essential features of issue system.

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Chapter 19

STANDARDISATION, STANDARDS AND WORK MEASUREMENT

STANDARDISATION AND STANDARDS

STANDARDISATION and standards are essential yardsticks of control. The word *standardisation is generally used to denote achievement of uniformity in the definition and description of work and concepts.* When the term is used in relation to the office management, this uniformity may be in the context of defining polices, procedures and methods to be followed; and personnel, equipment and materials to be used in performing work in the office.

In business usage, standard can be described as the *output goal.* Standards thus necessarily relate to performance. In the words of Leffingwell, "In management practice, *'setting standards' means the determining of levels of accomplishment after all factors which affect accomplishment have been standardised.*"[1] It is one of the major tasks of office management (and hence of office manager) to fix up standards of performance of each factor. But before these standards of performance can be fixed, it would be essential to standardise the factors like personnel, policies, methods and materials which affect performance vitally.

Standardisation

Thus while standardisation relates to uniformity of office equipment and machines and motions to complete work processes, standards should be considered yardsticks of performance. It is in this context, that the two terms are being used.

Objects of Standardisation

There can be many objects of standardisation in the office, the end-

[1]Leffingwell and Robinson, *Office Management*, 3rd Edition, Tata McGraw-Hill.

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point of which can be economy and efficiency. The major objects of standardisation in the office can be summarised as follows:

1. Economy in the use and maintenance of equipment and machines. Standardisation ensures economic use of costly equipment and machines, *e.g.*, if standardised dictating machines are used, tapes, would be interchangeable. Similarly maintenance costs would be lower because to maintain machines of the same kind, spares and service contracts can be cheaper.

2. Lower training costs. The over-all training costs are bound to be low since the materials, supplies, equipment and machines are standardised. This also ensures interchangeability of staff to meet peak-load requirements.

3. Economy in purchase. Another objective of standardisation is to have economy in purchase of supplies, furniture, equipment and machines. Buying in large quantities can result in lower purchase price.

4. Fixation of performance standards. Standardisation is necessary to fix performance standards.

Different Areas of Standardisation

Following are the *areas* in which standardisation of office methods can be particularly useful:

(*i*) Human Activities;
(*ii*) Communication;
(*iii*) Forms and Records;
(*iv*) Equipment and Machines;
(*v*) Furniture;
(*vi*) Supplies;
(*vii*) Space Allotments; and
(*viii*) Working Environments.

(*i*) **Human activities.** Human activities can be standardised in the office. The best method—an example—can be determined. This method can then be followed by other office employees with, of course, the necessary changes needed to suit an individual job or an individual employee.

(*ii*) **Communication.** Communication means and methods can be standardised to reduce costs. This is very important in the case of organisation where offices are located wide apart.

(*iii*) **Forms and records.** Standardisation of forms would result in fewer forms and also less lengthy forms. Then there can be standardisation of time periods during which records must be kept and then destroyed.

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(*iv*) **Equipment and machines.** Standardisation implies using similar equipment and machines (of the same brand mostly).

(*v*) **Furniture.** Standardisation of work-tables, chairs etc. is done to ensure economy and interchangeability.

(*vi*) **Supplies.** It implies that there is standardisation of different supplies like paper, carbon paper, ink, staples, rubber, *etc.*

(*vii*) **Space allotments.** Space allotments too are to be standardised. This is to be based on job *types* as well as job *levels.*

(*viii*) **Working environments.** Working environments are to be standardised—the amount of light needed for different jobs, permissible noise levels, humidity, etc.—to have better performance.

Advantages of Standardisation[1]

Standardisation in the office has the following advantages:

1. **Greater economy.** Standardisation means greater economy in all activities. Standardised supplies, equipment and machines can be bought in larger quantities and thus at lower prices. Besides, interchangeability of equipment and machines results in their more economic use and lower capital and repair costs.

2. **Greater suitablity to tasks.** Standardisation means the right type of supplies, equipment, machines, communication, forms, furniture, and working environments for given tasks (which are again standardised).

3. **Ease in administration.** Standardisation takes care of the routine work, while the management tackles the more important tasks.

4. **Suitability of methods.** Greater use (and reliance) of computers and mini-computers makes standardisation compulsory. Thus standardisation is a necessity in the modern office.

5. **Better control.** Performance standards cannot be fixed without standardisation. The two are inter-related. And performance standards have to be fixed for controlling office activity.

6. **Help in preparing budgets.** Where standard methods of work have been evolved, the office costs can be determined with greater accuracy. Thus office budgets can be prepared with ease and greater accuracy since costs of different activities are known. These advantages thus lead the management to have standardisation.

Effect of Standardisation on Employee

Although standardisation has become a necessary feature of all modern offices, yet its effects on the employees cannot be ignored.

[1]See Littlefield and Others.

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The employee is treated more like a machine, as it was in Taylor's Scientific Management in which work tools and work methods were standardised. This means that his work is more dull and thus it causes more fatigue and boredom. Therefore, it is necessary for the management to take care of this aspect while standardisation is put into practice.

Steps in Standardisation

Every progressive organisation must have a *systems department* (its nomenclature may differ from organisation to organisation) which is responsible for standardisation. In practice, however, office operating methods are so varied that it would be useful to have a standards committee in the organisation, which is a standing committee. However, such a committee can also be a special committee. Whatever be the arrangement, the following steps are suggested to bring about standardisation of a method:

1. Determine the *purpose* of the operation.
2. Determine the *needs* to be met.
3. Determine the various *alternative methods* of performing the operation.
4. Compare the *alternative methods* serving the same purpose vis-a-vis the cost factor.
5. Now the *best method* (or methods) should be selected on the basis of various available alternatives.
6. To *give concrete shape to thinking*, it would be necessary to standardise and prepare written specifications.

WORK MEASUREMENT AND STANDARDS

Over eighty years ago Frederick W. Taylor observed that there was a conflict between management and workers. He came to the conclusion that much of this conflict could be resolved if the management could determine "what is a *fair day's work*" and then could give a "*fair day's pay*" in return. This led him into the pioneering work of the time study by which one could determine a "fair day's work." The importance of the "fair day's work" has increased greatly since Taylor's times. The management has to determine scientifically "how long a work assignment should take."

Meaning and importance of office work measurement. In simple words "to measure means to determine quantity." Measurement of work thus concerns itself with the quantity. Work measurement can be described as *the programme of measuring the volume of work*

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completed and the amount of time taken to complete this work. In other words, time standards are established through work measurement. The time standards so set help the office management both in planning as well as controlling. Time standards so established prove useful under the following *situations*:

1. *Determination of manpower needs.* Manpower requirements for each function in the office are determined with the help of time standards. For example, if a typist types out 50 bills a day and 100 bills are to be typed out each day, the number of typists needed for the purpose would be two. Besides, overtime requests can be considered in the light of work standards and fluctuating requirements.

2. *Scheduling and distributing the work load.* Time standards help to distribute work over workers and work centres evenly. Thus work measurement helps in avoiding inequities.

3. *Comparing performance.* The standards help to compare performance. This is done with the help of the utilisation index which is calculated by dividing the number of standard hours (number of units produced multiplied by the time standard) produced in a work centre by the number of actual hours expended. Suppose standard time per unit of office work is one hour and 1,100 units were produced in a work centre. Thus 1,100 standard hours were produced. Suppose the number of actual hours consumed in the work centre is 1,000. The *utilisation index* of the work centre would be 110 per cent. Since the utilisation index is a relative measure it helps to compare work centres carrying on different types of activities.

4. *Determination of costs.* Time standards provide the basis for the determination of costs of different work units. This is possible because time standards for every function or part of a function can be converted into cost standards. This is particularly useful in an organisation where a function is composed of many parts.

5. *Providing basis for incentive wages.* Since time standards help to measure efficiency, thus every worker or a group of workers (or a work centre) can be rewarded for efficiency on the basis of performance.

6. *Improved morale.* The employees' morale is better since they know as to what is required of them in terms of quality and quantity of output. A better worker is thus recognised.

7. *Help in installing efficient office systems and procedures.* Since the office manager knows the volume of output and its cost, he is able to cut down the cost of office systems. If any method, design or technique is to be changed or greater mechanisation is to be undertaken, the cost presently incurred and to be incurred in future due to

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changes would be compared. Any changes would be permitted only if cost reduction is possible.

8. *Help in office audit.* Work measurement helps to set standards of performance. These standards help in the matter of office audit since they help in evaluating performance of employees and work groups.

Steps in work measurement. Following steps are suggested for work measurement:

1. *Improving and standardising work methods.* Time standards should be set only after methods of work have been improved and standardised. This action ensures that the tasks to be measured are performed in the most efficient possible way. Besides, it ensures that all the employees are performing the work in the same way.

2. *Determining tasks to be measured.* The tasks to be measured are determined and classified. Before the measurement process is started, all elements or parts are also considered. It is usual for the supervisor to approve the task descriptions and their classifications.

3. *Defining measuring unit.* The unit in terms of which work is to be measured must be defined adequately. The work unit would be different for different types of work. However, it would be essential to have a unit which is easy to identify, count and understand.

4. *Establishment of procedures for reporting.* It is necessary to establish procedures for reporting whereby the necessary *production counts* (in terms of units), hours worked and other data are collected and reported periodically. Generally this responsibility is entrusted to the supervisor of the work centre.

Methods of work measurement and setting standards. Methods of work measurement in the office are the same as those used in the factory. As more and more mechanisation is taking place in our country, standards would become more necessary. Besides the erratic method of estimation or guess-work, work can be measured and standards can be set with the help of the following methods:

1. *Method of past performance.* Under this method past records are analysed to lay down standards. Standards set on the bassis of the past performance may be based on the best performance, or the worst performance. Usually an average of the best and worst performances is calculated. It is a *simple method* which can be installed without much cost. The greatest *drawback* of the method is that if the data for the past do not reflect efficiency, the standards fixed would be much below the required level of efficiency.

2. *Time analysis method.* It is also known as the time log method. Following *steps* are involved in this method: (*i*) Every activity performed during the day is identified. (*ii*) Each identified activity is given

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a simple code. (*iii*) A special time analysis sheet is prepared by every worker in which he records his performance for a period of a week or month. (*iv*) The data of performance so recorded is analysed, reviewed and edited; and a time analysis list is prepared for every department, upon which each activity is summarised by code number. The report so prepared gives the total time spent on each activity in a particular department. (*v*) Now the total quantity produced is divided by the number of hours spent which provides the basis for the time standards, and comparisons can be made amongst various departments on the basis of these time standards.

The method is *simple* and can be installed without much additional cost. The major *drawbacks* of the method are that the data collected are subjective; and such data are also unreliable because the personal time allowances are not recorded by the individual employees.

3. *Work sampling method.* Under this method a trained analyst first of all breaks down all the jobs involved in the study. Random observations are recorded of the work performed by various individuals. How they spend their time and what do they produce are recorded. Then a report is prepared for the work of the whole of the department concerned and observation is made as to the time spent on each job. Work sampling method is *scientific* and the data obtained under the method are much more *reliable* than under the time analysis method. The method has two important *drawbacks*: *First*, trained analysts are needed; and, *secondly*, the method may be uneconomical if the sample size, needed to produce correct results, is too great.

Standards and Change

Standards are to be changed mainly for the following two reasons:

1. To effect improvement. Once standards are set, an effort is often made to improve them. Improved working conditions, better leadership, and improved office systems can certainly allow for improvement in standards.

2. To accept inter-dependence. Standards in the office are inter-dependent. The change in one standard must lead to a change in other related standards. For example, a better office machine must lead to better performance standards of the related personnel.

Method of motion study and time study. Motion study is used mainly to improve work methods, while time study is used to fix time standards. Motion study aims itself to obtain the "one best way to do the work"[1] and the time study aims at studying the time

[1]The phrase used by Frank B. Gilbreth and his wife Lillian B. Gilbreth.

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spent on each element of a job.

Motion study (or method study). "*Motion study is a process of analysing a job to find the easiest, most effective and most economical method of doing it or portions thereof.*" The *objects* of such a process are: (*i*) "To improve the present or establish the correct method for an existing job or process." (*ii*) "To improve methods generally" To establish data from which process layouts and standard times can be pre-determined synthetically. These objects have to be attained through scientific investigation. Taylor and the husband-wife team of Frank Gilbreth and Lillian Gilbreth stated the need and importance of such a study. Motion study is carried out while workers are at their jobs; and all their movements, whether small or big, are noted down carefully. Each movement has been named *therblig* (the name Gilbreth spelt backwards). Gilbreths point out that there are 17 *fundamental motions* or *therbligs* in every human operation. Sometimes the motions are too fast to be timed with the help of a stop-watch. In that case the *method of micromotion* is followed. In this technique, a movie camera is connected with a micro chronometer (a special type of clock) and photographs are taken. The pictures so obtained are scrutinised to determine motions which are wasteful. Thus with the help of motion study the one best method of job performance, which every worker is to follow, is determined.

Time study. A single operation can be divided into a number of elements. Time study aims at studying the time spent on each element of a job. It has been described thus: *Systematic observations, recording and analysis of the time taken to do a specified job or operation or part of an operation, under specified conditions at the same time assessing the rate of working or performance of the operator in order to establish the time necessary to do the work at a defined standard of performance.* In more simple words it can be defined "primarily as the art of observing and recording the time required to do each detailed element of an individual operation." Basically time study aims at determining the proper time needed for an operation. Time study may be undertaken after the motion study.

Methods of time study. There are two methods of conducting time study: (*i*) *Micromotion method.* With the help of elaborate equipment, motions are minutely observed and data recorded. This method is scientific but is very costly and cumbersome. (*ii*) *Stop-watch method.* This method is cheap and simple. Under this method, a stop-watch is used to record time for each part of the operation. In the matter of selection of a worker for observation, care should be taken that a worker possessing average skill should be chosen. If an above

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average worker is selected for observation and recording, the time-standards fixed may be too exacting for an average worker to attain. After observations have been recorded in terms of time, exceptionally low and high recordings should be eliminated. An average of the rest of the recordings should be calculated to fix the time for each element of operation.

The two studies—the time study and the motion study—determine the best method of doing job and the standard time allowed for it. They thus form the basis on which *standard tasks* can be set.

The fundamental aims of these two studies can be re-stated. The aim of time study is to determine the proper speed of movements made by a worker. Motion study analyses movements to eliminate unnecessary movements. These two, therefore, determine the standard time to be allowed for doing a job and the best method of doing it. Hence a "fair day's task" or "standard tasks" can be set.

QUESTIONS

1. What is standardisation? State the different areas of standardisation. What do you consider to be the objects of standardisation?
2. You have been made the Chairman of a committee in the office appointed to consider whether standardisation is desired or not. Make out a case for standardisation. Also state how would you affect standardisation in the office.
3. "Standardisation is essential in the office." Discuss.
4. Outline the steps involved in standardisation. What is the effect of standardisation on the employee.
5. What is work measurement? What is its importance?
6. You are the General Manager (Office and Administrative Services). You have been asked by the management to affect work measurement. State what steps would you take in this matter.
7. How can you set standards in the office? Is it necessary to change standards?
8. Write notes on: (*a*) Motion study; and (*b*) Time study.

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Chapter 20

PRODUCTION CONTROL AND QUALITY CONTROL

PRODUCTION CONTROL

PRODUCTION Control is concerned particularly with coordination of the current performance of work by the different departments, units and employees.[1] In other words, production or quantity control is the process of managerial control (whether applied to plant or office). As Brech[2] points out that it is "*a specific application of the control function*, and is concerned with recording results and correcting for deviations from programmes and variations from standards." Once office plans are prepared and they are put into operation, it becomes essential to exercise some kind of control by which mistakes do not recur and corrective action might be taken without delay. It is also essential to see that the volume of work is equal to the quantity planned.

Objects of production control. The objects of such a control are: (*i*) to control the variations from plans, *i.e.*, *progress;* (*ii*) to control the cost factor, *i.e.*, *cost control*; (*iii*) to control quality of output, *i.e.*, *quality control*; (*iv*) to control proper use of machines in the office, *i.e.*, *machine utilisation*; and (*v*) to *affect control on automation.*

Steps in production control. Production control in the office involves the under-mentioned steps:

(*i*) *Planning*, *i.e.*, preparing detailed office plans.

(*ii*) *Routing*, *i.e.*, the path the production of information will follow and the order in which different operations will take place in the office.

(*iii*) *Scheduling*, *i.e.*, establishment of the volume of work to be done, and fixing the time for starting and completing every operation in the office.

(*iv*) *Despatching*, *i.e.*, the issue of necessary instructions, and taking steps to ensure that time schedules are adhered to.

[1]Littlefied and Others, *op. cit.*

[2]Brech, *op. cit.*

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(*v*) Checking the progress or *follow-up*, *i.e.*, checking up whether work proceeds as given in the office plans and what are the deviations from the standards already set.

(*vi*) *Inspection*, *i.e.*, to ensure maintenance of quality of production or work in the office, checking-up is done from time to time.

These steps are now discussed in detail:

(*i*) *Planning.* This is the first step towards effective production control. For the purpose of planning, the office manager and the systems and methods department would prepare a viable plan on the basis of available information. Charts and written plans on the basis of the information received from management are prepared. The management gives details about the work to be done and the time of doing it. These plans and charts are the very basis of production control since they indicate the objectives to be attained.

(*ii*) *Routing. Routing includes the planning and where and by whom work shall be done, the determination of the path that work shall follow, and the necessary sequence of operations.* In brief, it refers to the route or path charted out that the materials and work in the office will follow. The object of routing is to specify the most economical and systematic sequence of work. A *route card* is prepared for the purpose of showing the route and the following considerations must be kept in view at the time of its preparation:

(*a*) The office machines must operate at full capacity.

(*b*) The shortest and the most economical route should be given in the card.

(*c*) The work should pass through better workers if it is necessary to produce work of quality.

(*iii*) *Scheduling.* After the route card has indicated the route, the next stage in production control is the preparation of the schedule which indicates the time that is required for the production at each stage. In other words, a time-table is prepared which shows the total time to be spent, the time to be spent at each stage and the processes to be employed. Thus scheduling is *the determination on the time that is required to perform each operation and also the time required to perform the entire series, as routed, making allowance for all factors concerned.*

Factors in scheduling. In the preparation of schedules two factors must be given careful consideration: (*i*) the different types of work in hand, and (*ii*) the urgency of work. Certain types of work assume urgency from time to time which must be completed immediately.

(*iv*) *Despatching.* The next step relates to the execution of the plan itself. *Despatching can be briefly described as function of initiating*

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production on the basis of pre-conceived plan. It is a follow-up of routing and scheduling. Despatching entails the following *steps*:

(*a*) The *provision of necessary machines and stationery and stores* before the production actually starts. This is needed so that work is performed smoothly.

(*b*) To initiate the work, the workers are to be given necessary *instructions and orders.*

(*c*) The *time of starting and completing* each process or operation is to be recorded.

(*d*) The work is to be moved to the *next process* or machine after completion. For example, after letters have been typed out, they are to be mailed out.

(*v*) *Checking process or follow-up.* After despatching, the real work of production control starts, *i.e.*, the work done is to be evaluated and appraised. Deficiency, if any, is pin-pointed and corrective steps are taken to put things in order. Record of work, bottle-necks and delays are also to be used for future reference.

(*vi*) *Inspection.* Inspection of work is carried out to see that the work of the desired quality is produced. The work of inspection can be carried out in one of the two *ways*: (*a*) The quality of work is checked against standards only at the end of the production process, or (*b*) The quality of work is checked at the end of each process. The second method of inspection reduces the chances of rejection and thus as far as possible should be adopted. There can be cent per cent inspection where every product is inspected. This is done where there is a work requiring great accuracy. In many cases random sampling techniques are employed where some work is inspected at random to check on the quality of the work done.

Advantages of production planning and control. Production planning and control offer the following advantages:

1. *Efficiency and public goodwill.* If the production in the office is properly planned and executed this creates a good image of the organisation in the minds of the customers and employees on whose goodwill the continuity of business depends.

2. *Overtime is avoided.* Effective production control reduces overtime work.

3. *Better inventory control of stores and stationery.* Inventory control of stores and stationery becomes better as different operations and requirements are carefully planned.

4. *Less production time.* There is better utilisation of working time as everything is well-planned much in advance of the work. This also results in *better morale.*

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5. *Better equipment utilisation.* The equipment is put to the best possible use. Thus many costly office machines are put to a joint use by different departments, *e.g.*, using the computer.

6. *Avoids bottle-necks.* Since an even flow of production is maintained through production control, bottle-necks do not occur.

The net effect of all these advantages is lower cost of office work, better morale, greater efficiency and a good image prevails in the minds of customers. In brief, the firm prospers and grows.

General approach to production control. Following approach to production control should be adopted:

1. *Preliminary appraisal.* Preliminary appraisal should be made to spot type of work that fluctuates greatly and thus creates problems of delay and bottle-necks.

2. *Determination of variations.* Different time periods should be studied and incoming volume chart should be prepared to find out the variations.

3. *Discovering causes of fluctuation.* The principal causes of fluctuations (or variations) should be explained and determined.

4. *Degree of flexibility possible.* It should be determined whether the work must be finished by a certain time and date or there is some room for flexibility.

5. *Improvements possible.* It is desirable to consider possible improvements in equipment and work methods so that the impact of peak load is reduced.

6. *Alternative methods.* It is necessary to consider alternative methods by which the peak load can be handled and get the facts needed in deciding on the method or the combination best suited.

7. *Application of best method.* The best possible methods should be applied and the results should be evaluated.

Production control in practice. Production control in the office is even more complex than that in the factory. In most large factories production happens to be machine dominated, while the office in our country, by and large, can still be considered to be human dominated. The following points are worth-noting while putting production control in practice in the office:

1. *Human relations aspect.* Production control does not mean that individuals work for the supervisor or a particular executive. They work for the organisation. A supervisor or an executive should never indulge in pressure and threats for the sake of making a good showing before higher management. This is resented by employees.

Besides, the higher management should see that unduly high standards of output are not fixed. Such an action may result in two

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problems: (*a*) They can never be achieved. This may also mean that the employees are not able to earn premium or bonus if an incentive scheme operates for the employees. (*b*) The employees may feel that their positions are threatened; higher output at the existing levels of organisational activities may lead to retrenchment of some of them.

Employees would react best to the idea of production control if they understand it well, they feel that the work-load is fair, and their positions are not threatened. Good communication results in conveying the objectives of such a control to workers. Work-loads should be determined at reasonable levels. It is also necessary for the management to be receptive to workers' suggestions.

2. **Peak load problem.** Peak loads must be taken care of in any production control programme. There are alternative methods to meet this situation in the office. These methods have been outlined in the following paragraphs. However, it is suggested that these methods can be modified or even some other methods can be devised as alternatives considering the demands of individual office.

(A) **Flexible schedule.** The following points are worth-noting:

(*i*) *Sales effort.* Sales efforts may be re-timed or varied in a way that there is regular flow of work into the office. However, where nature of industry does not allow this (refrigeration, wool, etc.), the office must be prepared to receive uneven work flow

(*ii*) *Factory production flow.* The sales effort should be directed to secure advance orders so that the factory production gets stabilised and also the work that flows into the office.

(*iii*) *Cycle billing or staggering.* Cycle billing may be considered. Also there can be staggering of due dates for reports, payrolls and other work involving deadlines.

(*iv*) *Priority work.* High-priority work can be taken up first and the low-priority work can wait, for example, updating of records, preparation of reports, etc., can form a part of a 'backlog plan' in which they are taken up in slack periods.

(*v*) *Controlled backlog.* In most businesses, work is received unevenly over the week, *e.g.*, work may be the heaviest on Monday. In such a case, part of Monday's work may be allowed to spill over to Tuesday and so on. Of course urgent work may have to be cleared on the same day. A study has to be carried out to determine the average work demand for each day to the week spread over a number of weeks, *e.g.*, it may have to be done for 10, 20 or 52 Mondays or 10, 20 or 52 Tuesdays in a row.

(*vi*) *Dividing work.* Sometimes impending peak-load is known. In

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such a case some preparatory steps can be taken before the expected peak hits, *e.g.*, preliminary information can be collected, cumulative totals can be made, headings to forms can be given and so on. And less urgent steps can be taken after the peak is over, *e.g.*, summarising and filing, etc.

(B) Rigid schedule. The following points are worth-noting:

(*i*) Cross-training, Employees can be trained to handle a number of tasks so that they can be shifted from low-peak activity to high-peak activity. Supervisors too should be trained similarly. In fact, normally the supervisors like cross-training because that may open up avenues for promotion in the long-run.

(*ii*) *Inter-departmental shifting.* If different departments have different peak-load periods, personnel can be shifted from slack to busy departments. Shifting can be done with great ease for routine tasks. However, shifting personnel from one department to another is not on easy job because of the resistance of the employees to shift constantly from one department to another. This resistance can be overcome by having informal supervisory contacts, profit sharing and such other means which may soften resistance. In fact, the costing department should also give due credit to departments whose employees move out to other departments.

(*iii*) *Using utility group.* The management may go in for an unassigned utility group, just like the "flying squadron", which can take care of peak-load, vacations, absences and other short-term needs for personnel. The members of this group are trained to handle a variety of jobs since they are supposed to handle many types of jobs. However, the work of this group should be well-planned and coordinated with the work of the departments in such a manner that this task force is kept busy throughout the year, otherwise the utility group would be become a useless overhead.

QUALITY CONTROL

Meaning and importance of quality control. Production control in the office implies the inspection of the quality of the work done in the office. Quality of the work performed is checked with reference to the planned quality. Just as a factory must take steps to ensure that the quality of the product is on par with the planned quality, it is also necessary for the office to see that the quality of its services is maintained at a satisfactory level. Quality of office work is reflected through (*i*) accuracy, (*ii*) promptness, (*iii*) effectiveness, and (*iv*) economy. These are subjective elements and hence quality in the

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office is faced with many problems.

The need for quality control in the office arises chiefly on account of the following *factors*: (*i*) Quality control *saves on time* spent on a job. (*ii*) *Economy* in expenses on inspection is possible. (*iii*) *Profitability increases* because work done accurately is not to be re-done. (*iv*) Accuracy and promptness *create goodwill* for the organisation in the minds of all the outsiders who deal with it. Thus the organisation grows. Emplooyees' *morale also improves* since they take pride in the work done by them.

Methods of quality control. Following are the three methods of controlling quality of work in the office.

A. Checking all work or 100 per cent check system. Under this method, all the work done is checked through one or the other means. For example, typed sheets are read in full and compared with the original properly. The system has the main *advantage* of great accuracy. Its *drawbacks* are many, chief of which are: (*i*) *Duplication of work* takes place as the same is repeated for the purpose of the check. (*ii*) The method is very *costly*.

B. Random sampling or spot checking method. Under this method the supervisor selects at random (without any notice) any subordinate everyday and draws a random sample of the work done by the subordinate for the purpose of a check. The result is recorded on a suitable form made out for the purpose. This thing goes on for every employee and several samples of work of each employee are taken over a period of time (say one to two months). Thus a basis is obtained for calculating the accuracy of each employee's work. To find out the departmental accuracy and effectiveness, the results are combined.

The main *advantages* of this method are: (*i*) Since a random sample is taken almost by surprise, the *workers are alert and accurate.* (*ii*) The method is also *economical* since there is no duplication of work as it is in the case of 100 per cent check system. The method can be described as a fair compromise between no checking at all and a fullscale check.

C. Statistical quality control. This method of controlling quality is statistical one. For this method, a large number of observations are made, usually over a fairly long period. It would be observed that while the average is of greatest intensity, the deviations from this average will fall either below or above the average figure. Thus errors occur. A description of each error, its possible cause, and an estimate of the time required to correct it provide additional information. The distribution of values can be plotted on a graph paper. A qua-

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lity control chart can also be prepared which gives the upper and lower limits of errors.

Quality Control Programme

An effective and prompt quality control programme is essential to serve the objectives stated above. A successful quality control programme in the office must incorporate the following elements:

1. Organising for quality control programme.
2. Determining quality standards.
3. Checking actual quality of current work.
4. Recording errors and defects and comparing with standards.
5. Correcting defective work.
6. Analysing and improving quality.

1. Organising for quality control programme. There are three aspects to this element: (*i*) *Planning.* The quality control has to be planned. This is necessarily a staff function. There can be a quality control committee which can be headed by a senior executive in the office or the office manager himself. This committee should lay down standards of quality, the methods to check quality, the means to correct defective work, and suggestions to improve quality in the light of experience. (*ii*) *Supervising.* Who is to check quality must be well-defined. It is suggested that the supervisor must be made responsible for checking quality of work. (*iii*) *Managing.* The managers must understand that success of a quality control programme is essentially a team-work. Every effort should therefore be made to nurture team effort.

2. Determining quality standards. It is very difficult to lay down quality standards for office work. The quality of office work in a given situation depends upon four factors:

(*i*) *Quality of materials.* To obtain good quality work, it is essential to provide the employee with the right type of paper, pens, carbons and others supplies.

(*ii*) *Quality of machines.* Machines must be of the right quality and in proper working order. A bad typewriter, for example, would produce a bad letter.

(*iii*) *Quality of employees.* In the final analysis, quality of employees is a very important factor influencing quality. The emplayees should be well-trained for the jobs that they perform so that errors are few.

(*iv*) *Job conditions.* Job conditions are perhaps the most important factor influencing the quality of work. Monotony, excessive work-load, peak work-load, rush work, etc. all lead to decline in quality.

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All these factors must be taken care of.

Quality standards should be fixed on the basis of the past experience and effort should be made to improve upon this past performance. For example, past records may show 97% accuracy in typing work. An effort should be made to improve it, to say 99 to 99.5%.

3. Checking actual quality of current work—methods of quality control. *Benefits of statistical quality control.* The benefits of statistical quality control (S.Q.C.) technique are many in office, chief of which are: (*i*) The S.Q.C. *lowers the cost of inspection.* (*ii*) It *lowers the cost of office services* as it ensures greater accuracy. (*iii*) High quality of office work wins over the customers and thus *goodwill is created.* (*iv*) Employee's *morale also improves* since S.Q.C. improves the work of office. (*v*) Above all, it *informs the management* when things are not going as they should go. Thus the management can take the necessary remedial action.

4. Recording errors and defects. At this stage the error and defects should be recorded. This job is to be done by the supervisor. The supervisor should be well-trained for this task. He should perform this task with due tact and see that the errors are brought to the notice of the employee concerned so that they are not repeated in future. In factory, the quality control engineers/inspectors exist whose main task is to sample the quality of manufactures. On the same pattern, *quality control inspectors* can be appointed in the office, who can sample the quality of office work. They have to be unbiased in their assessment. To some extent this can be achieved by referring the sample without giving the name of the worker.

Error report. The following form can be used for reporting errors and defects.

ERROR REPORT

Department _____ Section _____

Material Involved _____

(form, letter, order no. etc.) _____

Nature of error _____

Person making error _____

Date of error _____

Reason for error _____

(given by person making) _____

Quality control schedule and chart. A quality control schedule can be prepared for each activity. It would be the better if a monthly quality

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control chart is prepared. This quality control chart should be on percentage basis. It should be prominently displayed in the concerned department so that employees see it and the message is transmitted. Following is one such percentage quality control chart for letters typed:

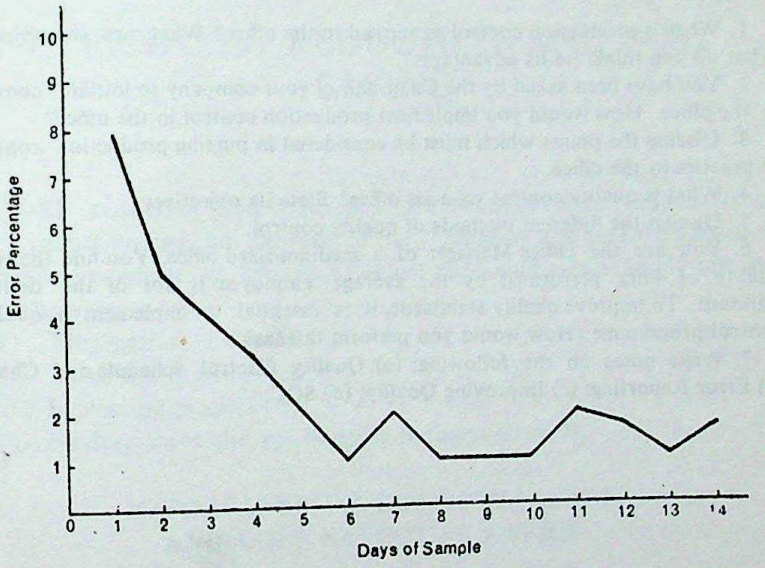

FIG. 20.1. *Control Chart for Letters Typed.*

This quality control chart is very useful since it shows the trends in errors (or quality). A large percentage of errors would make the management sit up and think.

5. Correcting defective work. Errors discovered by checkers, supervisors, customers and outsiders, etc. should be corrected. The work of correction can be best performed by the person who handled the original work. This means that he completes the performance of his responsibility; he is permitted to save face; and is also allowed to learn from his past errors so that he improves upon his performance in future.

6. Analysing and improving quality. Quality control has now been recognised as a continuous long-range programme rather than an occasional concern for quality. Besides, the prevention of errors is better than their detection and consequent correction.

As already stated, errors may be due to materials, machines, men and job conditions. Errors should be, as far as possible, traced to each of these factors. Corrective steps should thereafter be taken to

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take care of the causes of errors. Quality supplies, machines in good working order, proper placement and training of employees, and provision of proper job conditions should be ensured to meet the needs of the quality control programme.

QUESTIONS

1. What is production control as applied to the office? What are its objects? What do you think are its advantages?
2. You have been asked by the Chairman of your company to initiate control in the office. How would you implement production control in the office?
3. Discuss the points which must be considered in putting production control in practice in the office.
4. What is quality control vis-a-vis office? State its objectives.
5. Discuss the different methods of quality control.
6. You are the Office Manager of a medium-sized office. You find that the quality of work performed by the average employee is not of the desired standard. To improve quality standards, it is essential to implement a quality control programme. How would you perform this task?
7. Write notes on the following: (*a*) Quality Control Schedule and Chart; (*b*) Error Reporting; (*c*) Improving Quality; (*d*) SQC.

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Chapter 21

OFFICE COST REDUCTION AND COST SAVING

COST reduction and efficiency are closely inter-linked. Cost reduction can be defined as the "*planned and positive approach to the improvement of efficiency*". Cost reduction may imply one of the following:

(*i*) Elimination of *waste*;
(*ii*) Speeding up of *operations*;
(*iii*) Increasing *productivity*:
(*iv*) Finding ways and methods to reduce *unit costs*.

IMPORTANEE OF COST REDUCTION AND COST SAVING IN OFFICE

Office work, like many other human activities, does not produce any object or income directly. To some, therefore, office activity may appear to be unproductive. But this is not true. Office performs a function by which the work of an organisation goes on smoothly. It coordinates the work of various departments and assists them in performing their own respective tasks efficiently. Besides, it keeps the organisation in touch with its customers, the Government and other public and projects a good image of the organisation which results in the creation of a continuing goodwill in the minds of all the people who deal with the organisation. It is very difficult to assess the contribution of office to each activity in money terms or physical units. However, a proper costing system may help to allocate office expense to each job separately.

Every rupee spent on office cannot, however, be a justifiable expenditure although many office managers may claim that all money spent on office is necessary and even inadequate. But this may not be true again. It is necessary that the cost incurred must justify itself. In other words, it is necessary that the office costs must be correlated with efficiency. Although it is not easily possible to conduct a cost-benefit

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analysis in quantitative terms, yet it is essential that the office costs must be kept at a reasonable minimum level without, of course, sacrificing efficiency. Efficiency may be the focal point in the office, though it cannot be the sole consideration.

Cost reduction or cost saving cannot be equated with miserliness. The administrative office manager should scientifically assess the possible benefits of an expenditure and incur it without reservation once he feels that it is necessary. Where he feels that an expenditure is unnecessary and is not needed, he must not incur it even if it is an insignificant amount compared with the total budget of the office. The age-old saying of the 'rupee saved is rupee earned' can be aptly applied to the avoidance of unnecessary expenditure.

To sum up, cost reduction or cost saving is important due to the following *factors*:

(*i*) Wasteful expenditure is eliminated.

(*ii*) Optimum use of budgeted resource takes place.

(*iii*) Improvement in investigative skills of executives at different levels takes place and consequently their efficiency improves.

(*iv*) Improvement in office systems also takes place since an effort to streamline office management function would necessarily result in the right type of systems for the office.

(*v*) Productivity may go up.

(*vi*) Inculcating a sustained spirit for cost reduction.

Types of Wasteful Expenditure

The office manager should properly understand the problem of wasteful expenditure before he takes up the question of cost saving. Wastes can be divided into *three* broad classes:

(*i*) Waste of money;

(*ii*) Waste of time; and

(*iii*) Waste of effort.

Waste of time in reality is the waste of money because time is bought with the help of money. Waste of effort is doubly dangerous. It results in the wastage of time and the delays which cost greatly in real and money terms.

Office Cost Reduction or Cost Saving and the Organisation

Since office is a part of the total organisation, cost saving is bound to influence the rest of the organisation. A rupee spent properly in the office brings forth the best results.

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Programme of Cost Saving and Cost Reduction

There are very many possibilities for office economies and, therefore, all progressive managements take up programmes to reduce their waste and improve the performance of the office. Saving is necessarily a habit, a state of mind. This habit is to be given a shape. In other words, a sustained programme of cost saving is to be carried out in the office. A cost saving programme must have the following features:

(*i*) **Participation of employees.** A successful cost saving programme can be implemented only when first-line supervisors and employees participate in it. Their suggestions should be welcome and can be implemented if they are suitable.

(*ii*) **Developing cost consciousness.** It is necessary that a habit of cost consciousness should be developed amongst all people working, especially amongst the managers. There is a well-known saying that habit is second nature.

(*iii*) **Formation of groups.** Groups can be formed who meet regularly to critically examine each phase of work of the unit. The frequency of the meetings of such groups will depend upon the nature and size of the duties of the office.

(*iv*) **Continuing programmes.** It is desirable to have a continuing programme of cost saving. It cannot be an occasional economy drive. In the words of Leffingwell and Robinson,[1] " . . . an economy wave soon passes, as all waves must, and the organisation resumes its old wasteful habits until the next economy wave comes along."

(*v*) **Well-balanced.** Cost saving programmes must be well-balanced, *i.e.*, they maintain a sense of proportion. Only those activities and practices should be pruned which are wasteful, otherwise the saving drive may backfire. In other words, overzealous implementation of cost saving programmes may cripple the office services and thus in turn inefficiency sets in the organisation.

Areas of Opportunity for Office Economies[2]

There are many areas for effecting economies in the office, mor important of which are listed below:

"1. Better organisation and better assignment of responsibilities t departments and individual jobs.
2. Better design and control of procedures, equipment layout forms and supplies.

[1]Leffingwell and Robinson, *op. cit.*
[2]Littlefield and Others, *op. cit.*

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3. Better planning and maintenance of building services, and other physical facilities.
4. Better standards of quality, time and cost of performance.
5. Better administration of personnel—selection, training, compensation, supervision, and other phases.
6. Subcontracting of office functions and equipment."

ORGANISATION FOR COST REDUCTION

It is essential to organise a cost reduction programme in a planned and systematic manner. It is also essential to amalgamate cost reduction in the total organisation structure of the oranisation. Cost reduction should be considered a "staff" function and not a line function at the corporate level. Where cost reduction is not an occasional phobia but a continuing effort, it may be ideal to form a *committee* for cost reduction at the corporate level consisting of the Management Accountant, Cost Accountant and the different departmental heads. The committee should be chaired by the finance director or the managing director so as to emphasize the importance that the cost reduction programme has in the eyes of the management. Further, a small committee in each department, *e.g.*, the factory, "office", personnel department, marketing department, etc., should be constituted. Such a committee at the departmental level would perform a staff function. A departmental cost reduction committee in the office would consist of heads of different sections, the office manager and representatives from the costing department.

Dangers of Cost Reduction Programmes or Campaigns

It is accepted by all that well-planned and well-directed cost reduction programmes can reduce costs considerably and improve the profitability of an enterprise. If the programme is of a continuing nature, as it should be, *self-improvement* takes place. Self-improvement is reflected in (*i*) improved *standards* of work; (*ii*) better *methods* of work; (*iii*) minimum *waste* of material and time.

However, cost reduction programme has its dangers, which should be kept in mind while planning it. These dangers or limitations are summarised as follows:

1. Cost shifting. Much publicised "crash" programmes of cost reduction may reduce costs in one centre but the same costs may get shifted to another centre; and they may re-appear there.

2. Re-growth of costs. Where the cost reductions are not based on sound reasons, *e.g.*, improved methods, the costs will grow back to

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their original size once again. Such a behaviour of costs is inevitable unless the service given is less effective.

3. **Decline in morale.** Cost reduction programmes are suspect in the eyes of the employees since they consider that such programmes may put their positions in jeopardy. As a consequence, personnel relations and morale may deteriorate.

4. **Discrediting a system.** If budgets and/or standard costs are in operation in the organisation, a sudden attack on the costs, which have been regarded as the accepted yardsticks, would discredit the system so far used.

5. **A panic measure.** Usually the crash programme may be a panic measure which is taken to face a serious cash shortage or expanding trading losses.

However, these dangers can be easily avoided if the various factors already outlined in preparing a programme of cost reduction are considered. Where it is an emergency action, then the objectives and means of achieving them should be explained to all concerned. Such a step would ensure the whole-hearted cooperation and active participation of all parties to a cost reduction programme.

METHODS AND TECHNIQUES OF COST SAVING AND COST REDUCTION

Once it is decided that cost saving programme should be continuous one (as it should be) and the areas of economies are defined, it is necessary for the management to employ suitable techniques and methods to effect economy. It is very difficult to achieve 100 per cent utilisation of men and machines in the office. The effort to achieve 100 per cent utilisation of men and machines may be fruitless but it does not mean there is justification for waste, extravagance, and other forms of inefficiency in the performance of office work.

Following are the different methods and techniques, which are adopted to achieve the object of cost saving:

I. Organisation and Methods (*O* and *M in brief*).
II. Cost and Budgetary Controls.
III. Action Research to Simplify Office Work.
IV. Supervisory Control and Administrative Vigilance.[1]

ORGANISATION AND METHOD (O and M)

O and *M* has been long recognised as an important part of the office

[1] *See* the Chapter "*Office Supervision.*"

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in Europe, America and Japan. Even the British Government recognised its importance in 1941. The reason for this was that the "old lack of method in the office was giving way to planned and scientific controls. There began a tendency to view all clerical staff as requiring some common element of management, and not to leave them to the whims of individual departmental heads."

The term O and M can be described as *the activities of groups, of people in government or other public bodies or in private firms, who are asked to advise administrators or managers on questions of organisation and methods so as to increase the efficiency of the work for which the manager is responsible, either by providing a better service or a cheaper one, or both.* The O and M service is advisory and its objective is to devise and suggest the best methods, systems and routines in the context of the whole of the organisation so that greatest efficiency is attained by incurring the least cost per unit of work or output.

Acceptance of O and M

The work of O and M is advice. Therefore, it is necessary that the O and M Officer should not be made incharge for the execution of the work of O and M, otherwise a conflict will take place in the office. The authority of the Office Manager will be usurped and the very purpose of O and M will be defeated. The success of O and M will thus depend upon the extent to which advice is accepted by the Office Manager. This acceptance of advice depends on three factors: (*i*) the intrinsic worth of the advice, (*ii*) the skill of O and M staff in formulating the advice and getting it accepted, and (*iii*) the value which the management attaches to the work of O and M.

Why O and M?

Having considered the meaning of O and M, student of office management would naturally like to know as to why O and M should be instituted in an organisation. There can be many reasons, more important of which are as follows:

1. The O and M Officer brings a freshness and independence of views which, coupled with administrator's own knowledge, may shed new light on old problems;

2. He usually concentrates on one job and can take enough time for enquiry and thought, whereas the administrator has to divide his attention between many subjects, most of which tend to seem more urgent than problems of organisation or method;

3. He is not confined within one section or division but covers the organisation (or procedure) as a whole;

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4. Being independent in action he is in a position to pursue any fruitful line of enquiry; and being part of the organisation he need not have any prejudice in favour of established practices, or be influenced by personal relationships;

5. He has more opportunity for testing ideas against experience of similar work done elsewhere;

6. He has been trained in specialised techniques of investigation.

Objectives of O and M

The aims or objectives of O and M are as follows:

1. Elimination of waste in all activities is the primary objective of O and M.
2. Codification of work procedures.
3. Improvement in flow of work.
4. Improvement of existing work output.
5. Improvement in accuracy.
6. Improvement of service rendered by office work, *i.e.*, greater efficiency.
7. To make the staff efficiency conscious.

O and M in Practice

Once an organisation has decided to have O and M activity, the problem of its use arises. The approach may be to define the area for O and M. (Areas for O and M have already been described in the Chapter earlier.) A particular area for O and M may be defined by the top management, or the O and M Officer may himself pick up a particular area by studying the problems of delays and inefficiency in the office. Once he is able to find the area which requires immediate attention, he starts with his task.

O and M Officer. Before we proceed with our study, it would be useful to say a few words about the O and M Officer. Very few organisations in our country have realised the importance of O and M department (or section). Therefore, a very few organisations are going in for O and M officer. There is a great need today to streamline office activity with the help of O and M and affect economy and efficiency. This can be achieved only if the right type of O and M Officer is appointed. The O and M Officer must possess the following qualities to be successful in his task:[1]

1. *Knowledge of theory and practice of organising activities.* He must possess the knowledge of theory and practice of organising

[1]HMSO (London). *The Practice of O & M.*

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activities of all kinds and have cultivated a good knowledge of the various subjects with which office management is concerned, *viz.*, clerical procedures, forms, office machinery and equipment, office systems and routines, etc. However, he should not pose as an expert on subjects concerning the office. In fact, each situation has its own peculiar problems which cannot be solved through pre-determined ideas of a so-called expert.

2. *Seeker of cooperation.* His work requires cooperation from all and sundry. It is thus necessary that he should seek it from all. "He must always work in the closest collaboration with them and make the most of their experience and interest." Thus he can do something only if he creates a goodwill for himself and the useful work that he is supposed to perform.

3. *Analytical.* The O and M Officer has to possess an analytical mind. He must know as to what facts are to be collected, how they are to be classified, and ultimately analysed to test or prove his conclusions.

4. *Personal qualities.* Like any other executive in the organisation, the O and M Officer must possess certain personal qualities. He should take interest in his work. He should be self-reliant and energetic, since the nature of O and M work is such that, to a great extent, the O and M Officer must himself generate the drive and initiative needed for the job.

Principles of O and M[1]

Following are the guiding principles of O and M:

1. Principles of promotion of "participation with know-how" by every office employee. This is basic to the success of any activity in any organisation, more so in the case of O and M which involve changes, innovations and improvements which may be resented by many employees. It is thus necessary to promote a sense of participation by all employees. In other words, the employees must be properly prepared mentally to cooperate in the task of O and M.

2. Principle of essentiality. Each activity must be justified for its essentiality and the unnecessary ones must be eliminated. Principle of essentiality alms at minimising the non-productive elements which should be reduced to an absolute minimum and the so-called productive elements of a procedure should be maximised.

3. Principle of domination of work activities. Wherever possible recopying should be avoided and work activities must be combined.

[1]Terry, *op. cit.*

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Of course, in certain types of work recopying is bound to take place, but all types of work should be studied by the O and M Officer and combination of work must be done.

4. **Principle of reduction of distance.** People and papers in the office must follow the shortest routes. Long and winding routes are wasteful in terms of effort, efficiency and money. The O and M Officer must study the routes taken by men and papers and reorganise them in a way that they travel over the shortest distances.

5. **Principle of flow of work.** It is necessary that the work must flow to an employee in a regular manner. Uneven flow of work, sometimes very heavy and at other times negligible, tends to give a feeling of dejection to the employee. He never gets a feeling of "getting on top of the work." An even flow of work is thus desirable.

Steps in O and M Work

O and M work has come to signify an important activity in an organisation and a whole book can be written on the subject regarding the O and M work. Considering the limitations of space in a book like ours, we shall confine ourselves to basic steps in O and M briefly.

The basic *steps* in O and M have been outlined below:

1. **Selection of work or assignment.** There may be many areas which may be fit for O and M. However, all work cannot be done at the same time, only a limited area can be subjected to O and M investigations. The area to be selected for assignment is one which is bound to prove most fruitful. It would be proper to consult the office manager or the branch or departmental head before assignment is considered further. This is necessary to secure utmost collaboration in the work in future.

Preliminary work in an assignment. After the assignment has been chosen after due consultation and the needs of the organisation, the preliminary work regarding an assignment involves the following:

(*i*) *Initial discussion with management.* The first meetings of the O and M Officer with the management are vital since they help the O and M Officer to know the senior managers personally and explain them the purpose of the O and M enquiry. Incidentally, he is able to obtain the following from his initial discussion with management: (*a*) Explanations of objectives, activities and procedures. (*b*) Organisational charts with all their details about duties, etc. (*c*) Names and grades of officers concerned. (*d*) Different types of data for various people for a period of time. (*e*) Information regarding shortfalls, *e.g.*, the volume and nature of arrears; and the failures to com-

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plete work according to schedule.

Studying relevant books and papers. The O and M Officer should study all the relevant books, papers and documents before he starts with the assignment so that he is well-prepared for his task.

Contacting staff. Initial discussion with management would also involve a contact with various people and would help them to understand the purpose of enquiry and the help they can render in the matter.

(*ii*) *Doing a preliminary survey of the job.* A preliminary survey of the job to be undertaken must be done at different levels, viz., at the section or branch level, at the operational level, or at the head office level. This is very important especially in the case of those activities which are complex or unfamiliar. The main purposes of such a survey are: (*a*) "To get a better understanding of the problems." (*b*) To decide how best to go about the examination in order to get the most profitable result.

(*iii*) *Planning the assignment.* It would be ideal to draw up a provisional programme for the assignment after the preliminary work is complete. This provisional programme is to be prepared by the branch (or section or department, etc.) head and the assignment officer. These two should also consult the management before proceeding with the preparation of the plan. Besides, these two officers should meet regularly to decide about the line of action and the changes that might be needed from time to time. It would be better if the planned assignment satisfies the following conditions: (*a*) Subdivision of assignment, where necessary; (*b*) Working out the time which is to be spent on each stage of assignment; (*c*) The programme should be realistic so that it takes into account human factors like sickness, people going on holidays and so on; and (*d*) Regular progress report of assignment (say once a week or once a month) must be submitted by the assignment officer to senior O and M Officer.

2. The form of enquiry. Second step relates to the form of enquiry which is to be considered with reference to the following factors:

(*i*) *Verification of purpose.* The form of enquiry can be decided only with reference to the purpose. The O and M Officer, therefore, must get from those concerned a statement of the purpose of each separate part of the activity or procedure being reviewed. Here it must be remembered that an activity or procedure may arise out of governing purposes, *e.g.*, statutory requirements, etc., or an activity may be supplementary, or has come into existence merely by usage or tradition.

(*ii*) *Specification of duties and responsibilities.* It is necessary to prepare correct specifications of duties and responsibilities of

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people. This, of course, is a very difficult task as it is not always easy to give a clear definition of duties and responsibilities of people.

(*iii*) *User or customer needs.* Office procedures and actions must be studied not only from the point of view of those who are engaged on them but also from the point of view of the customer, whether a member of the general public, a particular section of the public or of a group of a business organisation.

(*iv*) *The systems and the methods used.* Office systems and methods used must be studied in the context of objects for which they have been adopted. An effort should be made to find out simpler ways of doink work.

(*v*) *The measurement of work.* "By measuring the amount of work performed in a selected period of time one can get precise information about the volume, incidence, frequency and doing of the work and the speed at which it is performed."

(vi) Costing of work. The cost of work is a very useful indication of efficiency. The O and M study must make use of this concept to facilitate comparisons.

(vii) Employment of office machines and equipment. An enquiry should be made of the office machines and equipment used to examine the procedures involved.

(viii) Movement and physical effort. Although mental effort predominates in office, yet some minimum amount of physical effort is also involved, *e.g.*, for handling of papers, movements of files, use of machines, occasional movements of furniture, etc. The form of enquiry involves the reduction of fatigue due to physical effort, smooth flow of work, devising shortest possible routes for flow of papers and movements of people, etc.

(ix) Working conditions. It is well-known that suitable working conditions are conducive to work. The O and M Officer should find out the situations and jobs in which higher standards of working conditions than those normally laid down for work should be observed to promote efficiency. It is necessary to pay greater attention to machine units to minimise their effects on workers engaged in them and those working in nearby units.

(*x*) *Forms designing.* Forms are a very important part of office work. The O and M Officer must study the procedures for which forms have been designed so that suitable suggestions may be made.

3. Examination of how work is organised? The third step of O and M enquiry involves the review of the organisation of work with reference to the following factors:

(*i*) *Organisation structure.* Many basic factors are considered when

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an organisation structure, regardless of its size, is being planned. More important of these factors are: (*a*) Division of work; (*b*) Delegation of authority; (*c*) Line of authority; (*d*) Span of control; (*e*) Co-ordination; (*f*) The concept of "staff"; (*g*) The concept of functional unit; and (*h*) Centralisation and decentralisation.

The O and M Officer must find out whether these factors have been adequately incorporated or not. After an organisation has been planned and instituted, there is a continuing need for its review, *i.e.*, it is necessary that the organisation must be flexible enough to accommodate changing conditions.

(*ii*) *Planning and control.* Good management requires careful planning of the quality, quantity and timing of work. The deviations from the plan must be considered to plan for the future operation. The O and M Officer must obtain the requisite "control" data for the purpose of his enquiry. This "control" data may relate to the following different categories: (*a*) Statistical; (*b*) Financial; (*c*) Quantitative; (*d*) Qualitative; (*e*) Systems; (*f*) Accuracy; (*g*) Personal; and (*h*) Inspectorial. "A note should be made of the purposes each control seeks to serve, and in some case, the effect of the control, *e.g.*, upon the frequency and type of error".

(*iii*) *Staffing, job analysis and grading.* The O and M Officer must also consider these aspects of staffing, job analysis and grading.

Staffing is the measure of human effort which is essential for efficient work. The O and M Officer should first study the work and find the most efficient way of doing it. And if he proposes any changes in the work, he should also suggest the necessary consequent changes in organisation, duties and responsibilities; and should work out the staffing implications and show how the cost of the new arrangements compares with that of the old. Even where work methods are to remain unchanged, he must consider whether the organisation of the work is efficient and whether the correct numbers and types of staff are employed.

Job analysis and grading are to be considered by the O and M Officer.[1] The job analysis establishes not only what is done and why, but also how the job is done and what those who do it must have by way of knowledge or skill. Staff are classified into grades on the basis of the type of work they perform. The O and M Officer must study these two aspects carefully. Especially, close enquiries must be made to discover the real quality of the work of higher graded staff and also what time is spent on supervisory duties or personnel questions.

[1] *See* the chapter "Office Personnel-I" in the Book for their definition.

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(*iv*) *Staff management.* Besides the above considerations regarding staffing, job analysis and grading, it is essential to pay attention to: (*a*) communication; and (*b*) staff morale. The O and M Officer must consider these two aspects carefully. He must analyse the effectiveness of communication in the organisation. The problem of staff morale is more intricate since it involves the human element. He should seek the help of appropriate people for this purpose, *e.g.*, the personnel section, the establishment section, etc.

4. Getting the facts. The fourth step is of getting the facts. Most of O and M work consists of getting the facts. This work must be done selectively and economically. It is useless to go in for blind fact-finding, which results in the collection of data which cannot be used properly. Only those facts should be collected which are relevant to the purpose. The O and M Officer will have to employ his judgment and experience to determine the facts to be collected. In getting the facts, it is not enough to take a note of what happens. The O and M Officer should get the facts regarding: (*a*) the nature of work; (*b*) the amount of work; (*c*) the purpose of work; (*d*) the people who do it; (*e*) the place of doing it; (*f*) the time of doing it; and (*g*) the methods used for work.

The getting of facts regarding the above factors involves the consideration of the following factors:

(*i*) *Methods of getting information.*[1] The O and M Officer should decide the best possible method (or methods) of getting information from the concerned staff. These methods of getting facts involve: (*a*) direct observation of work; (*b*) interview and discussion; (*c*) study of records; (*d*) sampling techniques; (*e*) checklists; and (*f*) written questionnaires.

(*ii*) *Recording information.* Information can be obtained by the O and M Officer from the written records of the office. Where records are to be made for the O and M work, it is necessary to see that only the necessary records are created for the purpose. In preparing records, it is necessary to consider the following factors: (*a*) types of records, *i.e.*, organisation charts, and lists of duties and procedure records; and (*b*) methods of drawing organisation charts.

(*iii*) *Recording and charting of procedures.* In a very large number of assignments the study and formal recording of procedures is the heaviest task of all and O and M Officer should pay special attention to the development of efficient techniques. The time spent on this kind of formal record—known as the "procedure record"—is

[1] *See* the chapter "Statistical Data" in the book.

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rarely wasted. Procedure recording is one of the main devices which helps in getting the facts and aiding analysis. In recording and charting facts, the following points are to be considered by the O and M Officer: (*a*) the form of a procedure record; (*b*) the details of procedure records; and (*c*) the procedure charts.

5. Studying data and forming conclusions. The next step in O and M relates to the study of data and forming of conclusions. Thinking and reasoning should not be confined to any particular stage of assignment. As the work of O and M progresses more information may be needed for further fact-finding.

Studying the data. Study of the data is a basic O and M work. It is only through this process that generalisation can be made and conclusions drawn. The statistical data can be studied with the help of the statistical tools, *e.g.*, the averages and the co-efficients of correlation, dispersion, skewness, etc. However, in the use of one or the other type of statistical tool, it is necessary that the O and M Officer should use utmost care since conclusions drawn by using one of the statistical techniques may be misleading.

Drawing on knowledge and experience. In studying data and forming conclusions, it would be proper to draw on past knowledge and experience. In order to achieve this, it would be only proper if the O and M Officer keeps himself in constant touch with the developments in the theory and practice of management in general, office management and O and M in particular. This he can do by maintaining a regular contact with other O and M Officers and the books and other publications on the subjects.

Use of office machines and appliances. While forming conclusions, the O and M Officer will be confronted with the question of mechanisation in the office. The O and M Officer should see that the proposal of mechanisation has only been put forward after a thorough examination has been made of the procedures; and also the means of mechanisation chosen should have advantages over all other methods of work. The specific proposal must be made on specific and well-judged merits. While forming conclusions about mechanisation, it is desirable to consider the following factors: (*a*) Choice of machines; (*b*) Training of operators; and (*c*) The management of a machine unit.

Framing ideas and forming conclusions. The process of framing ideas is a difficult one. The O and M Officer should not lose sight of objectives. He should set out the purpose of the work in a few words. Then he should make a note of all the means by which work might be performed. Imagination must be used and there should be

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readiness to consider ideal schemes or the existing schemes.

6. Formulating proposals and seeking agreement. This is the next stage in the O and M enquiry in which sound ideas are converted into specific proposals for action. The net effect of the proposals is to secure greater efficiency, *i.e.*, the work involved is essential to secure accepted aims and purposes and that the adoption of proposals will save resources like staff, papers, forms and machines, etc., or increase the effectiveness of the work or the service given to an extent which is clearly worth the extra cost. The O and M Officer should weigh all the pros and cons of each proposal and adopt a proposal only on the result of such an assessment. The real test is that: (*a*) the proposal may bring about cost saving in the longer run, or (*b*) there must be an over-all saving in the organisation although it may mean increase in cost in some area or section or department. The economy, however, should not become a fad with the O and M Officer. Excess of economy may lead to lowering down of efficiency.

A proposal to be acceptable must possess the following features: (*a*) It should be practical. (*b*) The proposal must be well-tested. If it is not so, the departments supposed to implement the proposal must do so willingly and without any difficulty. Besides, the soundness of the proposal must not be in doubt. (*c*) The proposal, wherever necessary, must be supported by charts, diagrams, etc.

Proposal and the organisational problems. It is often difficult to reach agreement on proposals to change organisation. Although proposals may aim at creating greater efficiency, yet it is not possible to demonstrate such a benefit of the proposals before hand because factors involved matter for judgment and not measurement. It would be ideal for the O and M Officer to discuss proposals with the management fully at an early stage so that everything receives the approval of sound proposals. The O and M Officer should weigh in his mind (in a rational manner) the possible advantages and disadvantages of organisation.

7. Writing the O and M report.[1] Writing of the O and M report is the culmination of all effort of the O and M enquiry. While writing the O and M report, it would be helpful to keep in mind the following points:

(*i*) *Discussion.* A discussion before the draft helps the O and M Officer to appreciate fully the point of view of those to whom the recommendations are to be addressed.

[1]*See* the chapter "Business Reports" in the book.

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(*ii*) *Recipient.* It is necessary to keep the recipient of the report in mind.

(*iii*) *Formal interim reports.* Formal interim reports may be prepared in case it is necessary to clear out of the way any important and fundamental changes or where agreement is needed on certain matters as quickly as possible.

(*iv*) *Deciding the nature and shape of a report.*

(*v*) *The structure of a report.*

Submission of the formal report. Once a report has been finalised formally, it must be submitted without any kind of delay because facts go out-of-date. While submitting the report, it would be essential to find out the number of copies which must be prepared for the purpose. The report should be submitted to the executive who commissioned it. It is customary for the O and M Officer to send a covering letter with the report thanking everybody who has helped in the study and report drafting. Besides, it may be good if relevant issues, although not a subject of study, may be highlighted in the covering letter.

8. Implementation. The task of the O and M Officer does not necessarily end with the report. He may have to be associated with the implementation of the report and further action may be needed on the following:

(*i*) Simple changes of procedure are given in the report but where further information is needed, the O and M Officer should come to the aid of the persons concerned.

(*ii*) Where substantial changes of procedure are involved, the recommendations should be formulated in detail. In fact, an installation plan may be a necessary part of the proposals and may involve experiments or parallel running. The O and M Officer should render all possible help in the implementation of major changes of procedures regarding equipment and machines, forms and stationery, layout, training and information and programmes and timetables.

(*iii*) Where specialised procedures are involved, it would be wise for the management to attach O and M staff for their implementation.

(*iv*) To clear misunderstanding about other recommendations, it may be desirable for the O and M staff to clarify points of recommendation.

9. Review. O and M work requires constant review and follow-up of the outcome of assignments which will help all concerned to form a broad judgement about the success (or failure) of O and M work. In making that judgment other factors must, of course, be taken into

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account, and O and M review management and staff to look more closely and objectively at its work; it may forestall and reduce claims for extra staff, machines, etc., and some recommendations, although not immediately accepted, may later be seen to have had a worthwhile influence on the organisation of the work.

Advantages of O and M

O and M offers many advantages, chief of which are given below:

1. Elimination of waste. O and M eliminates all waste. This is the prime objective of all O and M work. Wasteful procedures are eliminated and new and improved procedures are involved and applied. In fact, this is a continuous process.

2. Improvement of work performance. The O and M not only eliminates waste by introducing improved procedures, it also improves the existing work output. It must be borne in mind that the improved output is not achieved at the cost of accuracy. Accuracy is always given the importance that is its due.

3. Greater accuracy. As already pointed out, O and M also aims at improving accuracy. Greater accuracy of work brings many benefits to the organisation. Since errors are few, the work of the organisation goes on smoothly and much time is saved in locating errors and correct records.

4. Improved office service. O and M work improves the service rendered by office work. The improved service is the result of two factors, *viz.*, improved methods of work, and the improved methods are backed by better and adequate staff.

5. Projecting a scientific approach. The O and M projects a scientific approach to the problems of the office as well as the whole of the organisation. A spirit of scientific enquiry thus prevails everywhere in the organisation. The effort to think and act scientifically affects the attitude of the work-force. The work-force thus tries to improve its performance at every stage of the work assigned.

Disadvantages of O and M

In spite of the fact that O and M has come to be an important part of all modern organisations, whether governmental or private, it is not without its drawbacks. The drawbacks of O and M are summarised as follows:

1. Lack of workers' cooperation. The O and M Officer may find it very difficult to get adequate cooperation from workers whose work is the subject-matter of O and M enquiry. Quite often they may take O and M enquiry to be a "fault-finding" enquiry, which notion must

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be dispelled by the management.

2. Difficulty in assessing and recording office work. Unlike factory work, office work cannot be assessed and recorded with ease. It is the fundamental task of the O and M team (or officer) to devise the correct methods of assessment and record.

3. Bad effect on morale. O and M staff is employed in a consultative capacity and its main objective is to aid the management. There is, therefore, a tendency for the office staff to identify the O and M staff with the management. The office staff feels that it is subjected to "snooping raids" by the management, and this lowers the morale of the staff.

4. Problem of O and M costs. O and M costs may be very heavy. Thus in a very small office, the benefits of O and M cannot be obtained. It is only the large office, which can bear the O and M costs, that can derive adequate benefit.

COST CONTROL

Cost control can be defined as the control of all items of expenditure by regular and frequent comparisons of actual expenditure with predetermined standards or budgets, so that undesirable trends away from standards can be detected and corrected at an early stage. Cost control, therefore, involves the following *steps*:

1. *Determination of cost standards* for each item or element.
2. *Finding out variations* in costs from the standards, *i.e.*, what is the actual expenditure compared with the estimated or budgeted.
3. *Taking corrective steps* to ensure that actual costs are the same as the standard costs in future.

Every aspect of office deals directly or indirectly with cost control. However, effective management of the operations of the office needs a planned programme of cost control. Such a programme includes determination of unit costs for all possible aspects of office operations. It tries to determine how much each unit of operation costs and how much each should cost. It identifies the different units of operation so that these costs can be charged to those production functions that actually use these specific office services rather than to the overheads. Besides, it provides a basis for office budgeting.

Problem of Office Cost Control

Cost control in the office is a baffling proposition although it is so essential. Cost data of office operations is necessary to fix up the prices of the company's products and to analyse the company's

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product line to determine when products are not beneficial to the general operation. Office cost control poses a number of problems, the more important of which are as follows:

1. *Problem of variety and quantity of office costs.* Office has a great variety of many types of activities and thus it is not easy to establish rigid classifications and unit costs. These activities are composed of many different factors, some of which are unimportant, *e.g.*, the sorting of copies according to colour. Moreover, many different people work at different levels of responsibility. These details and variations make costing a very complex problem because it cannot be done on the basis of specifically identifiable units of office operation.

2. *Problem of practicability of the system.* Although a detailed office cost system is possible, yet it is a great problem to determine whether the system is practical. A fact to be remembered is that the cost analysis in the office is a big problem since office costs are often small items, and a detailed analysis is often more expensive than the savings realised; and hence is not justified.

3. *Problem of the operations to be costed, etc.* Since costs can be obtained on all kinds of office operation, it is difficult to decide as to which operation should be costed. What should be the level of accuracy? Which of the elements upon which a classification is based should be included? How practical is it, for example, to determine how much insurance, cooling, heating or lighting costs per typing work station? "The decision depends upon the cost of the analysis, possible economies due to analysis, and use of the cost data."

Implementing Office Cost Control

In order to implement cost control in the office, the following points are to be noted:

1. **Classification of costs.** Office costs are obtained from payroll records, labour records, purchase and sales invoices, and accounting and other records. In the USA, one commonly used classification is as follows:

1. Salaries, benefits and expense accounts of office employees and supervisors. 60-70%

2. Materials like supplies, stationery, postage, telephones, telex, telegraph, mail and messenger service. 15-20%

3. Overhead, such as maintenance and amortization of office machines, equipment, appliances, heating, lighting, insurance, taxes, rents, etc. 15-20%

These percentages are representative percentages of total office cost.

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In the Indian context, or for that matter in the context of any developing country, these percentages have to be changed to suit the conditions in which the enterprises operate. These percentages should be determined on the basis of the past records. In the case of most Indian enterprises, the percentage of salaries, benefits and expense accounts is bound to be lower, say 50—60% or so.

Office costs can be further divided into typical cost accounting classification, which is as follows:

1. *Direct material*, which is part of the office product, *e.g.*, forms, letterheads and postage.
2. *Indirect material*, which is not part of the office product but which is necessary to do the work, *e.g.*, erasers, pencils, rubber stamps, typewriter ribbons, etc.
3. *Direct labour*, which is applied to the office product by typists, clerks, stenographers and machine operators.
4. *Indirect labour*, which is not directly applied to the office product, *e.g.*, the work done by the maintenance staff or the O.M. department, etc.
5. *Overhead*, which is not applicable specifically to any part of the office product and service, *e.g.*, light, heat, rent, and taxes, telephone, supervision, etc.

The costs can also be classified as follows:

1. *Space*. Rent, lease, taxes pro-rated on the basis of square metre (feet) used.
2. *Salaries*. Direct and indirect.
3. *Equipment*. Furniture and machines, including maintenance and depreciation.
4. *RDP Costs* charged to the using departments. They are increasingly becoming important in large enterprises.
5. *Insurance on* equipment and space.
6. *Materials, supplies and services*.
7. *Light, heat*, etc.

Classification and analysis of costs tell management about the nature and quantity of office costs. This process must, therefore, be considered as the first step in cost control.

2. Cost comparison. Cost comparison is inherent in cost control, because it is only then that a basis for cost control is obtained.

Past records. Past records furnish the data for cost comparison. All changes in costs should be investigated. Cost data should be analysed to find answers to questions as to what, where, why, how, who. A *cost comparison chart* can be devised to serve the purpose.

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Cost per unit. Costs are to be measured in terms of a common unit, usually the unit of output in the factory, etc. Some examples are cost per account in a bank; cost per insurance policy in the case of an insurance company; cost per ship; cost per car; cost per lamp; etc.

Within the office, unitary costs can be determined for the various services performed by the office for other functions. The receiving functions are then charged with the cost of each of these services (including materials, labour, overhead) at a given rate per unit.

Following is the analysis of the cost of running a duplicating machine :

Number of copies per hour	1,000	
Salary cost per hour	Rs. 3	
Machine and material cost per hour	Rs. 7.50	
Average cost per 100 copies run		Rs. 1.05
Cost for overhead and indirect costs, per hour		.55
Chargeable cost per 100 copies run		Rs. 1.60

3. Standard costs. Standard costs of office operations can be worked out with the help of the cost accounting department and engineering department. A standard cost is the cost of a unit or its parts or operation which is determined to be reasonable and is based on the practical working conditions. Standard costs can be determined for typing letters, filing, dictating, processing forms, copying, duplicating, etc.

In the application of standard costing technique in the office, the office manager plays a vital role. He should determine the activities for which the standard costs should be determined keeping in view the quality standards to be attained in particular office operation. Where the difference in standard costs and actual costs are too wide and too frequent, cost standards must be revised.

4. Determining cost centres. Cost centres in the office must be determined so that responsibility for achieving cost standards gets defined.

5. Allocating costs. As far as possible office costs should be charged to the user department; and they should not be considered as overheads. Many office costs are of variable nature and they can be easily allocated to the user departments.

Such allocations have the advantage of being aware (and thus responsible) of the costs which they incur. This may result in cost reduction. Following bases can be usefully adopted for the allocation of some important office costs:

Salaries. Charge to departments on basis of employee time.

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Rent/Lease/Taxes. Area occupied by each department.

Filing. Number of papers sent to and issued by filing departments.

Postage Telegrams and Mail. Charges on the basis of postage used.

Duplicating/Copying. Number of items duplicated/Copied, process used, and number of copies made.

Stationery and Printing. Charge to departments on the basis of requisitions.

Telephone/Inter-com. Number of telephones in each department.

Long Distance Telephone Calls. Charge to departments making calls.

Central Dictation. Number of dictators in each department or number of hours of transcription.

Machine Calculations. Estimated use of service.

Lighting, Heating. Number of points taking into account special conditions of a department.

Central Stationery Stores. Value of stationery issued.

BUDGETARY CONTROL

Budgetary control is now recognised as an important device of controlling office costs in a modern office. As Terry puts it, "Managerial success in many cases lies in getting the work completed within a certain cost." Budgetary control helps to achieve this objective of completing the work within a specified cost.

Office Budgets

When the office manager talks of using a budget he has two concepts in his mind, (*a*) the budget, and (*b*) the budgetary control. *An office budget can be defined as "a device consisting of an orderly arrangement of data determined by computed guesses and covering all phases of the enterprise for a definite future period of time."* In other words, budget consists of future cost and performance estimates for a definite period of time. Just like the Government, any business organisation can budget its income and expenditure and targets.

Budgetary control is the process of using the budget by comparing actual results with the computed guesses in order to correct either the estimates or the causes of the difference. Budgetary control is thus the method or technique by which results are compared with the anticipated expenditure, income and production targets.

The above two, *i.e.*, the budget and the budgetary control are not only interrelated but also interdependent. From the managerial point of view, one without the other is useless and is a wasteful exercise.

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Why Use Budget?

The use of budgets in the office is important on account of the following factors:

1. **Planning and control.** Planning is an important function of management. It is only through the budgetary control that the function of planning is given its proper shape. Another important function of management is control. Budgetary control is a portent weapon of controlling. It helps to control performance.

2. **Balancing.** Budgetary control promotes an over-all viewpoint. A budget helps the office manager by encouraging a desired balance among the various office activities.

3. **Revealing weaknesses of organisational structure.** The use of a budget helps to reveal weaknesses in the office organisational structure. The units, departments, or divisions which have excessive high expenditures can be marked for managerial attention.

4. **Help in decision-making.** Budgets provide a great help to a member of management in decision-making. He gets factual information of goals and respective accomplishments shown by the budgets.

Limitations of Budgetary Control

Budgetary control, as a device to control office costs, has its own limitation, more important of which are listed as follows:

1. **Only a managerial tool.** Budget is a tool. It is not management by itself. A budget is not automatic in its operation. It is, therefore, necessary to take a great care in its preparation. It is also essential to interpret the data properly.

2. **Limitation as to time.** The use of a budget needs time. Current ills are not cured overnight by budgets. It is not possible to rush through correction or elimination of undesirable conditions. Budgetary control takes its own time to be applied.

3. **Limitation as to the accuracy of forecasts.** The budgets are limited by the accuracy of the forecasts. To achieve this, it would be better to review every month or three months so that new developments or changes of conditions are reflected in the budget.

Kinds of Budgets

It is possible to draw up a separate budget for any department or division of an enterprise. Often separate budgets are prepared for sales, purchases, production, finance, labour and general expenses. Such a budget can be called the departmental budget or the division budget. It can also be prepared for the office in an organisation,

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where office is an important part of the organisation. Where the office budgets is not prepared separately it will get incorporated under different budgets, *e. g.*, in the sales budget or the production budget, etc. It would be ideal, however, to prepare the office budget separately so that the office activity is recognised as an important part of the total activity in the organisation. The departmental (or division) budgets are then combined into one budget, which is called the "master budget" or simply the "budget."

Budgets are usually prepared in money terms (in rupees) but today it is recognised as a useful practice to prepare budget in physical terms as well. The physical resources needed to achieve physical targets figure in the budgets. The budgets may thus be the *money budgets* and the *physical budgets*.

Then there is the *step budget*. The objective of this type of budget is to predetermine the action to be taken if variations from the estimated goals arise. This budget shows the allowances at a certain level of activity and also the allowances at various other levels. In parctice, the deviations are estimated from the allowances for the established goal.

Principles of Preparing a Budget of Administrative Office Expense

The office budget can serve its due purpose only if it is prepared properly. To do so, it is desirable to keep the following principles of preparation of office budget in view:

1. Principle of responsibility. "The initial phases of preparing the budget should be assigned to key personnel at the operational level so that budgets flow upward from the departmental supervisors to the Office Manager." The process of preparing the budgets at the lower level is desirable to develop a cost consciousness at every level in the organisation and in the mind of every employee. However, it would be necessary to assign the responsibility of combining the different budgets to an experienced executive who has vision, a knowledge of finance, an understanding of corporate structure and the ability to see the over-all financial picture and all its components.

2. Principle of objectivity. "The budget should be realistic and show as objectively as possible what each department is capable of doing." The budget should neither be pessimistic nor optimistic. Besides, the budget-maker cannot be bound to the past, although the past records can act as useful guides.

3. Principle of target setting. "The budget prepared for each department, or for the office as a whole, should reflect the attainment of a specific target." Once the organisational targets are defined, each

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department's targets in relation to the organisational target should be defined. At the operational level, it would be desirable to review the past performance of each employee and the future performance for each employee should be defined.

4. Principle of flexibility. "The budget should be sufficiently flexible and contain a 'safety valve'." This is needed: (*a*) to meet emergency situations like strikes, and sudden moves by competitors; and (*b*) not to stifle progress.

5. Principle of adherence. The final office budget must be "sold" to the supervisors and their subordinates at the operational level. If the management is not serious about budget and its implementation, the budget would be a useless exercise.

6. Principle of review. "The budget should be reviewed frequently in order to determine variances that can be overcome before the budget has lost its effectiveness." The performance variations (from the target) must be noted quickly in order to remedy bad performances. In fact, a daily review of performance is the ideal way of spotting favourable and unfavourable variations.

Preparation of Office Budget

Proper care should be taken to prepare the office budget. It costs money and time to prepare a budget. A badly prepared budget is a useless and expensive exercise. To achieve the objectives of the budget, following *steps* are to be taken to prepare the budget:

1. Classification of office expenses. Where office expeness are an important part of an organisational set-up, it would be proper to define them properly. Broadly speaking, office expenses can be classified as: (*a*) *Fixed*, like rents, leases, etc., (*b*) *Semi-variable*, like supervision; and (*c*) *Variable*, like filing costs. Classification of expenses is needed for better control.

2. Allocation of office expenses. The office budget must allocate office expenses to various departments carefully. There are two types of office expenses: (*a*) *Direct*, which can be charged directly to the operating departments, *e.g.*, the depreciation of machines and equipment and salaries of the staff used exclusively for a particular department; (*b*) *Indirect (or overheads)*, which cannot be charged directly to the operating departments but which are allocated to these departments on a sound basis, *e. g.*, expenses for the centralised filing system, centralised O and M, etc.

3. Consulting the staff. The supervisors are consulted about the various aspects of the budget. The past performance of each department (even of each individual) is evaluated and target for future per-

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formance is laid down on the basis of the goals and objectives of the organisation.

4. Fitting into master budget. The completed office budget has to be incorporated into the master budget. The office manager should see to it that the integration of the office budget into the master budget is proper. The office manager should not be selfish. He should be willing to make suitable adjustments in his budget, if the organisation needs so demand.

5. Writing the budget. The next step in budgeting is writing the budget. The budget should be written (typed, cyclostyled or printed) with great care. Suitable explanations, where needed, should be added.

6. Transmitting the budget. This is the final and the most important step in budgeting. The budget must be sent to all departments and executives supposed to implement it. The copies of parts of the budget should also be sent to lesser executives who are responsible for the implementation of a particular part of the budget.

Problems of Cost Analysis Arising through Budgetary Control

There are many problems of cost analysis through budgetary control. Out of these problems, two of them are of great importance. They are discussed below:

1. The need for standards. It is necessary to have work standards for the office without which office budget cannot be prepared properly. By having the work standards and knowing the projected volume of sales and other office activities, it may be possible to prepare a more reliable office budget. The fixation of work standards presupposes proper job analysis, etc., for which the office management is responsible.

2. Effect of seasonal factors. Almost all offices have seasonal or periodic fluctuations in the work due to many factors. These factors can be classified into *two broad categories*: (*a*) those which are quite natural to the office activity, such as, preparation of wage and salary bills at the close of a given period, periodic and annual returns and financial statements, etc., and (*b*) those which relate to the activity of the organisation as a whole, such as, seasonal changes in demand of the products, etc. Whatever be the situation, it is necessary for the management to provide for peak-load fluctuations and the means to control them.

Meeting peak-load fluctuations. In order to exercise budgetary control over peak-load fluctuations, the office manager should pay particular attention to the following factors:

(*i*) *Over-time work.* Since this is an expensive method of meeting

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sudden demands, it should be used with great care. Over-time cannot be a regular feature of an organisation.

(*ii*) *Cycle billing.* By cycle billing, we mean a method of billing in which the preparation and mailing of statements to customers are done throughout the month so that fluctuations of work are eliminated. This method is followed by all public utilities. The customers are divided into, say, 10 to 20 groups and they are billed in succession over the month or 2 months, as is the case with many public utilities in our big cities. To eliminate peak-load fluctuations, cycle billing should be used. Cycle billing eliminates a known factor of fluctuations.

(*iii*) *Split-pay-roll dates.* Under this method, there are different pay-roll dates for different departments of the organisation. This ensures a more even flow of work in the office.

(*iv*) *Ad-hoc and part-time appointments.* They are made to tide over some peak-load problems. But most often they lead to errors, confusion and higher costs and also frustration on the part of many employees.

(*v*) *Floating or travelling units.* Under this arrangement, the office workers "float" from one peak-load department or section to the other as the need arises. This method must be employed where it is possible.

(*vi*) *Outside service bureaus and data processing.* In the USA and Western Europe, many business organisations find it worthwhile to make use of outside data processing centres to solve the problem of peak-load. This has also started taking place in our country in certain areas, *e.g.*, the preparation and declaration of examination results in the universities, etc.

ACTION RESEARCH AND PAPER WORK SIMPLIFICATION

Strictly speaking, work simplification is the American name for the English name O and M. However, it may be useful to consider only a limited aspect of work simplification which involves paper work. Paper work simplification involves two *factors*, viz., (*i*) the elimination of useless and outmoded procedures of paper work, and (*ii*) minimising delays and interruptions in handling papers. Some more outward looking companies in our country have made paper work an important aspect of their functioning. The object of paper work simplification is to save on costs and reduce delays. Delays cause frustration and create a poor impression in the minds of the employees and the public.

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Methods of Action Research and Paper Work Simplification

Following are some of measures which, if adopted, can effect considerable savings in costs:

1. Elimination of the use of envelopes. Wherever possible envelopes can be eliminated for letters and circulars, more particularly within the organisation. However, confidential and important correspondence, papers and records must be sealed properly.

2. Elimination of covering letters. Covering letters cost in terms of: (*i*) paper used, and (*ii*) the executive and other time spent on dictating and writing them. If they are eliminated, large amounts can be saved. In one company in India, the amount saved was as much as Rs. 7,000 in a year. However, where certain records and documents need explanation before they are sent, it would be unwise to eliminate covering letters.

3. Multiple copies of letters. Strict check must be imposed on the number of copies to be typed, cyclostyled, and printed and then supplied to different departments and sections. Golden rule is to supply the copy only when necessary.

4. Simplified receipt report. An estimated Rs. 5,000 were saved in the company where the receipt report prepared by the Accounts Department was simplified. Earlier it contained the list of items which was replaced by a simple report stating only (i) the goods received as per Bill No. . .and (ii) the date of receipt.

5. Elimination of the "gate pass". The company eliminated the gate pass and instead an additional copy of the cash memo was used. This resulted in a saving of Rs 3,000 per year in the company.

6. Improved "order form". It has become very common now to have order forms usually in triplicate. These order forms are supplied to customers who write the details of items to be ordered and send two copies of the same to the Company. Where the company's salesman books orders, he sends two copies of the same to the Company's Office. In this way, typing or writing of bills is eliminated. In a particular Company, the delay in typing bills, which took nearly 7 days, was eliminated. Instead, same day billing was possible. The yearly saving in costs was Rs 20,000. Besides, errors were completely eliminated.

7. Elimination of "delivery challan". The preparation of delivery challan can be eliminated. The order from the dealer or salesman with an endorsement of the supplier regarding delivery can serve as the delivery challan. In a particular company this resulted in saving in more than one way—Rs 12,000 in costs and elimination of writing of 12,000 orders having 84,000 items.

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8. Elimination of circulars. Some of the trade circulars sent every now and then are now being consistently replaced by monthly letters or quarterly letters or catalogues and lists. Irregular circulars do not catch any attention of the busy dealers. They are usually thrown away without serving their purpose. Regular monthly or periodic letters, etc., evoke a better response. Some of the publishers in our country have been using this technique for a fairly long time. In the case of a particular company, the monthly letter issued on the 25th of every month yielded an annual saving of Rs 10,000. Besides, the dealers found the material interesting and useful for future reference.

9. Combining requisition with order forms. In the case of a particular company requisition forms for purchases of materials like forms, stationery and supplies, etc., were combined with the order forms This resulted in a net annual saving of Rs 15,000. Five copies of requisition-cum-order form were made and they were used as follows: two copies were sent to the suppliers for order and acknowledgement, one copy was sent to the purchases department, one copy was returned to the stores and one copy was retained by the department placing the order.

10. Correcting typing errors. Typing errors can be corrected by (*i*) erasing the error on the typewriter, (*ii*) retyping the letter, or (*iii*) correcting minor errors in ink before signatures are put. As far as possible retyping of letters should be avoided since it is a time-consuming and costly method. However, only minor errors can be corrected through the other two methods.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the meaning of cost reduction? What is its importance in the sphere of office?
2. Outline the features of an adequate programme of cost saving and cost reduction. What are the areas of opportunity for office economies.
3. How would you organise cost reduction in the office? What are the dangers of cost reduction programmes
4. Outline in brief different methods of cost saving.
5. Why is there need for O and M? What qualities should the O and M officer possess in order to succeed in his task?
6. You are the O & M Manager of a large multi-unit manufacturing company. How would you implement the O & M Programme in your organisation?
7. What is O & M? What do you think are its advantages?
8. "O & M is a mixed blessing". Discuss.
9. Why is cost control essential in the office? What are the steps in cost control?

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10. You are the Senior Manager Administration of a large joint-sector company. So far the Management was ignoring the problem of cost control in the office. You have been told to put cost control into operation. What problems are you likely to face? How would you implement a cost control programme in the office?

11. Take a few examples to illustrate the bases on which important office costs can be allocated.

12. What are the different kinds of budgets? Outline the principles of preparing a budget of administrative office expenses.

13. How can you plan work simplification and effect economies in the office?

14. Prepare the office budget of the organisation with which you are familiar or in which you work.

15. What problems of cost control arise through budgetary control?

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Chapter 22

OFFICE MANUALS AND OFFICE AUDIT

MEANING OF OFFICE MANUALS

CONTROLLING office activity is an important function of office management. Controlling becomes a difficult task in a large organisation with a number of departments, divisions or branches. The large size of the organisation, with a large number of employees, makes it compulsory to put policies, regulations, functions, systems, procedures and methods in writing to guide and control employees. *An office manual can be described as a written record of information and instructions regarding policies, regulations, functions, systems, procedures and methods framed with a view to guide the efforts of the employees in the organisation.* In other words, an office manual is a guide book containing enough guidelines necessary for the highest performance of the job.

Need for Office Manuals

Office manuals are needed for a variety of reasons, more important of which have been outlined below:

1. Elimination of repetition of instructions. Office manuals are prepared with a view to eliminate the need for constant repetition of instructions. This saves on time since matters are disposed of without reference to the higher levels of the organisation.

2. Standardisation of instructions. Instructions are standardised so that there is uniformity in the implementation of policies, regulations, procedures and methods. Such uniformity is needed to give a fair deal to every employee in the organisation.

3. Fixation of responsibility. Office manuals fix responsibility for performing duties. Once instructions have been issued in book form, each employee can be held responsible for them and the manner in which they are carried out.

4. To aid employee training. Manuals are prepared to aid employee training, both of new and old employees. Established systems,

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procedures and duties are available in definite and compact form to the new employees. They prove useful for giving refresher courses to old employees.

Type of Office Manuals

There are many types of office manuals, which can be grouped into five broad categories. They are: (1) Policy Manual; (2) Organisation Manual; (3) Administrative Practice Manual; (4) Departmental Practice Manual; and (5) Multi-purpose Manual.

1. Policy manual. *A policy manual can be described as a definite course of action or a principle of procedure.* Thus a policy defines the limits within which activities are to take place. Thus a policy manual states broad managerial actions likely to take place. A policy manual, therefore, contains decisions, resolutions and directions of the Board of Directors stating the policies of the company.

Merits of policy manual. It is quite often said that a policy does not exist unless it has been put into writing. Modern management thinking does not favour individual decision of every issue. Protagonists of policy manuals cite the following advantages for these manuals:

(*i*) They predetermine courses of actions for managers and, therefore, compel them to think in advance.

(*ii*) They provide a framework within which a manager can act freely.

(*iii*) Only the exceptional matters of policy are referred to higher management resulting in saving of more costly managerial time.

(*iv*) All employees are treated equitably since all policies are in writing.

Demerits of policy manual. The opponents of policy manuals have their own reasons to oppose. They state the following points:

(*i*) It is nearly impossible to write policies accurately and completely because words and phrases can be interpreted in a number of ways. Hence confusion.

(*ii*) Once policies are put in writing, they become inflexible. Thus they are not able to cope with the changes.

(*iii*) The knowledge of policies is needed only by top management—the people charged with their execution. It is, therefore, sheer waste of time and resources if policy manuals are prepared.

2. Orgsaniation manual Organisation manuals are an integral part of the organisation charts in most companies in the USA, Japan and Europe. Usually every organisation there, whether big or small

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prepares an organisation manual. In our own country, barring a few companies, policy and organisation manuals are not to be found. *An organisation manual can be defined as a written record of details regarding the description of various types of positions, their inter-relation and the authority and responsibility of each such position.* In a large organisation, there would be separate sections of the organisation manual, each dealing with a specific department or even a section of a department. The organisation manual represents the company as a whole and is an aid in determining procedures for different departments. Promotional charts may be included in the organisation manual, but this should be done only if the promotional charts show possible promotional lines for the entire company.

3. Administrative practice manual. *It can be defined as a manual which contains procedures that affect all departments.* Standard procedures or methods are explained in this manual to carry on the work of the organisation. This manual provides with an overview to be used in each department and, therefore, forms the basis for departmental practice manuals. The subject-matter of administrative practice manuals can be education and training of employees; personnel and public relations; instructions regarding correspondence and reports; and instructions for preparing and administering the budget.

4. Departmental practice manual. *It can be defined as a manual that deals with the internal policies, organisation and procedure of an individual department* Thus its scope is more limited than other manuals which have been discussed. In this case every department is charted, and the organisation chart is often accompanied by a divisional, departmental or sectional write-up.

Different types of departmental practice manuals. There are many types of departmental practice manuals, each covering a different type of activity. Some of the more common of these manuals are discussed below:

(*a*) *Mailing manual.* A mailing manual gives detailed instructions in all phases of handling both incoming and outgoing mail. Such a manual is prepared by the mailing department incharge, supervisor or superintendent, etc. Where messenger service is a part of the mailing department, instructions for picking-up of mail of each department are included in the mailing manual.

(*b*) *Filing manual.* A filing manual is for the requirements for proper filing and contains such rules and regulations as may seem desirable. The filing manual is a very useful device. It facilitates supervisions, aids in training new workers, standardises filing and

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speeds up filing work. The old employees should study the filing manual carefully so that filing routines are followed systematically. The new employees would do well to study the manual thoroughly so that they are helped in having their "breaking in" training. Where filing work is decentralised, it helps to standardise filing practice in all departments.

It is very difficult to evolve a standard filing manual. The contents and objectives of filing manual are bound to vary from organisation to organisation due to the different methods of filing and indexing which are being used in each organisation. However, it may be useful to keep the following points in mind regarding filing and indexing while preparing the manual: (*i*) The rules must be in writing; (*ii*) The rules must be observed strictly; (*iii*) In case opinion differs as to the proper method, only one rule should be selected and followed consistently; (*iv*) Where individual experience requires, then rules must be amplified.

Example of a part of the Filing Manual

General instructions. (*i*) Follow instructions exactly. If you have a suggestion for improvement in the filing methods, refer it to the file supervisor, who will duly authorise a change in the manual if the new method is simpler and more efficient.

(*ii*) Do not discuss the contents of files with fellow employees or outsiders nor give out information or papers to persons whose duties have no relation to the material requested.

(*iii*) All special instructions must be given by the supervisor. Any problems that arise outside the regular routine of filing must be decided by the supervisor, not by a fellow clerk.

(*iv*) You are responsible for your own errors; thus refrain from asking other workers for instructions. No one is interested in helping you in your training than your supervisor. This is his job.

Accuracy is the first essential in filing; make it your primary consideration, and speed, the secondary. Accurate filing assures quick finding, and quick finding is the real test of your efficiency.

Familiarize yourself with office details other than those in your department wherever such knowledge will promote your understanding of how materials should be filed.

(*c*) *Correspondence manual.* This manual contains instructions regarding handling of correspondence; tone and structure of letters; opening and closing of letters; inter-department correspondence, punctuation, words, sentences and phrases; the appearance of letters, and the supervision of correspondence. The correspondence manual

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aims at standardising the correspondence work of a large organisation.

Section on structure and tone of letters' clearness and correctness

Clearness is assured only by strict adherence to the accepted rules of writing. Any deviation from these rules tends to waste the reader's time and to indicate a lack of concern for the reader.
Grammar. In letter writing, grammar pertains to the simplest and cleanest way of saying things, not to fancy writing. This does not mean, however, that fundamental principles should be ignored.
Conciseness. Conciseness is courtesy because it saves the reader's time. In letters it is as much matter of concise and well-planned thought as it is a matter of words.
Courtesy. Courtesy is more than the frequent use of "please." Courtesy is a matter of fundamental principles of letter writing. It denotes neatness, and correctness, for a lack of either conveys the impression that the customer is not worth the trouble of writing simple, correct language. Courtesy is clearness, for obscurity wastes the customer's time.

(*d*) *Communications manual.* A communications manual attempts to guide employees in selecting a suitable communications service which is the most efficient and least costly to the organisation. The manual should, as far as possible, be fairly illustrative citing the different media to be used for communication with outsiders under different circumstances, for example, where to use a telegram, how to write it and so on.

(*e*) *Procedures and systems manuals for computers.* In those organisations where computers have been installed (in our country, they can be counted on fingers), a procedures and systems manual for computer use must be prepared. Such a manual should specify how efficiently the computer can be used and to what purpose.

5. Multi-purpose office manual. Quite often a multi-purpose office manual may be prepared. This multi-purpose manual becomes the *hand-book* for office employees. It usually combines the essential parts of various manuals which are used by a large number of employees. Such a "hand-book" may also be prepared with the object of acquainting newcomers and sometimes even outsiders with the company, its history, its operations, its products, its objects and achievements, its policies, its personnel policies, its other policies, etc.

Such a hand-book is a very useful manual. It offers the following advantages: (*i*) It explains personnel policies, rules and regulations

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to new as well as old employees. (*ii*) It also eliminates friction, resentment and misunderstanding among workers and management because everything is defined precisely. (*iii*) It also explains to outsiders as to what the organisation stands for where such a "hand-book" is also distributed among the outsiders.

Principles of Office Manual Preparation

The following principles should be observed in preparing a manual:

1. *Centralise* all authority and responsibility for the office manual programme.
2. Write to the *level of the employee* who is to use the manual.
3. Prepare and revise *a distribution list* so that manuals are distributed among those who are to have them.
4. Use simple and direct *language.*
5. Have a simple *arrangement of* material.
6. Have proper *cross-referencing and indexing.*
7. Make use of charts, *diagrams*, etc.
8. Use *colour* to identify the printed matter or bindings.
9. *Revise* manuals constantly and highlight changes and revisions.
10. Carry out a periodic *audit*, especially of use.

Steps in preparing office manuals. Office manuals should be prepared with great care. In order to prepare office manuals properly, the following procedure is suggested:

1. *Define the subjects* to be covered by manuals. The subject-matter of office manuals has already been detailed above.

2. *Organise a committee* to prepare the manuals. It is desirable to include functional departmental heads for whom manuals are to be prepared. In case of manuals concerning the office, the office manager must be associated with the committee. Where the office happens to be large and is divided into a number of departments, head of each such department should be associated with the preparation of a manual for his department.

3. *Determine the number of manuals to be prepared.* This task is performed by the committee under the direction of its chairman.

4. *Prepare the questionnaires* necessary for the study of the flow of work within each department and of the job analysis of each position. These questionnaires should be prepared carefully and should include organisation charts, flow charts and job descriptions.

5. *Assemble the data* of questionnaires. The information obtained in questionnaires should be classified and recorded under proper headings.

6. *Study the data* to determine overlapping of jobs or duplication of functions.

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7. *Prepare and edit the manuals.* A rough draft of manuals should be prepared and discussed before they are finally approved by the committee.

Revision of office manuals. Manuals must be revised from time to time. This is necessary to keep them up-to-date. Revision of manuals is essential because much of the good work done in framing them shall be a sheer waste. Many contents of the manuals become obsolete and therefore the manuals become useless. In revising manuals. the following factors must be kept in mind:

(*i*) The *responsibility* of revising a manual rests on the department that created it.

(*ii*) It is necessary to revise the manuals as *frequently* as practicable.

(*iii*) Where no *provisions* have been made to revise mauuals and the responsibility of revising them is not fixed, manuals should be discarded. This is inevitable because no business is static.

Writing the office manuals. Since office manuals are to be used by each and every member of the organisation and they state the various aspects of the functioning of the organisation, it is necessary to draft them very carefully. In drafting the office manuals, the following principles should be observed:

1. Simple, correct and direct language should be used keeping in view the users.
2. The objective of a manual must be clearly stated along with the policies and objectives of the organisation.
3. The "Command" style should be used.
4. The ideas should be expressed in a positive manner and not negative manner.
5. The directions be brief.
6. The manuals should be broken in small sentences.
7. Proper use of underlining be made to emphasize the importance of a term, a sentence or policy, etc.
8. Paragraphs must be built around a single idea to avoid confusion and overlapping of ideas.
9. Revise the manuals as frequently as needed.

Distribution of office manuals. Office manuals are useless unless they are properly distributed amongst employees for whom they are meant. In fact it is they who would be responsible for carrying out the instructions and ideas given in the manuals. Organisation manuals may be distributed only amongst the major executives and in rare cases amongst those with lesser responsibility. The different departmental practice manuals should be distributed to departments and employees directly affected by them.

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Advantages of Using Office Manuals

The use of office manuals offers many advantages to the management as well as to the employees. Some important advantages of office manuals are as follows:

1. **Economy.** Manuals bring about economy in functioning. Routine matters are not referred upwards for decision. Besides, the best routines for work are described with exactness. Thus a lot of executive and other time is saved.

2. **Placement of responsibility.** Manuals define responsibility for work accomplishment—a basic principle of successful management. Thus errors also get eliminated.

3. **Standardising of procedures, etc.** The working of different departments and their work methods are studied and analysed carefully at the time of preparation of the office manuals. Thus the work methods can be standardised to assure smoother flow of work; elimination of duplication of work; and elimination of overlapping of functions.

4. **Aid training.** New employees can be trained with great ease since manuals indicate simple and clear instructions for work. The new entrants have only to consult manuals and seek a brief guidance, where necessary, to do work.

5. **Greater cooperation.** Manuals knit the organisation thoroughly since they are standardised reference guides for work procedures. Different persons working in different departments know each other's problems well. This leads to a greater cohesion and cooperation among departments.

6. **Ease in inter-department transfers.** Since manuals contain standardised procedure for similar work in different departments, inter-department transfers do not create any problems. In fact in most cases, transfers may bring about greater efficiency by removing monotony caused by working in the same department for a long time.

Disadvantages of Using Office Manuals

Office manuals are not without their disadvantages. In fact the utility of manuals for any organisation must be evaluated in terms of their disadvantages. If the advantages outweigh the disadvantages, there is a definite case for having the manuals in the organisation. Where, after analysis, it has been found that preparation and use of manuals gives no profit, they should not be prepared. Some important disadvantages, which must be considered while evaluating the use of manuals, are as follows:

1. **Cost of preparation.** Preparation of manuals is a very costly

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exercise consuming a large amount of executive and other time; and also a large amount of money may be spent on getting them printed or cyclostyled.

2. **Cost of keeping up-to-date.** Cost of keeping manuals up-to-date may be very high in most cases.

3. **Restrain individual initiative.** Most manuals tend to lay down fixed standards for work methods. This, therefore, introduces rigidity and consequently individual initiative is restrained. All this results in delays and lower efficiency.

4. **Needs and cost of audit of office operations.** It is necessary to vouch whether manuals are actually used, otherwise all the costly time and money spent on their preparation would go waste. This process of audit of office operations has its own cost.

AUDIT OF OFFICE OPERATIONS

Audit of office operations is an expanding field in large organisations in the USA. In our country, such audit of office operations is hardly considered necessary due to the low priority given to office work in business organisations. It is time that more attention is paid to such aspects of managerial control.

Office audit can be defined as an exhaustive review and evaluation of office management. Review and evaluation are conducted by selecting certain attributes as guides. Office audit is the process of stock-taking of all phases of the operations of the office, like examinations of office systems and routines, forms, correspondence, service, physical facilities, etc.

This idea of office audit has been borrowed from the practice of audit of financial accounts at least once a year to ascertain their accuracy and to reveal any weaknesses in controls that may need correcting. "*Auditing the books*" is a standard business practice having a legal compulsion in the case of companies. This idea of reviewing and evaluating has been applied to office operations.

Stages of Office Audit

There are two stages of office audit, which are as follows:

1. **General survey.** A broad, general survey is to be carried out to find out the major difficulties of current office management practices. Although such a step is not exhaustive, yet it supplies with a reasonable review of office procedures and practices.

2. **Detailed problem solving study.** In the second stage the detailed problem solving study is taken up of each area requiring attention as

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shown by results of the first stage. For example, it may include the analysis and study of machines used, of the forms being used, of the indexing method being used, etc.

Steps in Instituting Office Audit

Once the management decides to have office audit, it would be worthwhile to follow the steps stated below:

1. Fixing Responsibility. The first step is to fix responsibility as to who should perform this task. The following alternatives are suggested for this purpose: (*a*) The office manager should be given the charge to perform this task. (*b*) An "internal auditor" is appointed. He should be the person who is well-versed in his knowledge of systems, procedures, organisational structure and operations in the office. (*c*) An outside management consultant is appointed for the purpose. (*d*) An "Audit Committee" may be appointed with a view to do this job.

If an organisation is large, an internal auditor may be appointed for this purpose.

In other cases, the best thing would be to depute one senior executive in the office to take up this task or an Audit Committee may be appointed.

2. Defining objective of data needed. Data is to be collected for office audit. Thus before it is collected, it is necessary to define the objective of data to be collected, *i.e.*, why such information is needed. For example, work measurement reports may be made so that both the approximate work loads and work flow in various duties may be reviewed and evaluated.

3. Collection of facts. The next step is to collect all relevant facts from different sources. Facts will be collected by preparing a suitable questionnaire on sound lines.

4. Verifying information. Once facts have been collected, they must be verified by interviewing key personnel at all levels—supervisors as well as clerks.

5. Inviting suggestions for improvements. The next step in office audit is to invite suggestions for improving systems, procedures, etc. as applicable to a particular office activity. This process can also be followed when facts are being verified from supervisors and other personnel in the office. It is through suggestions for improvement that office work can be made more efficient.

6. Preparing audit report. Once the above processes are complete for office audit, the audit report is to be prepared. This report like other office reports, should be framed suitably. In fact it should go a

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step further—it should be reflective so that future courses of managerial action are the best. The report should be completed without delay and without much fuss.

Basic Areas for Office Audit

It is difficult to audit every aspect of office activity all the time since good auditing requires time and much reflective thinking so that further work is performed efficiently. Some of the basic areas of office audit are: office layout, work flow, office organisation, quality control, employee development, supervision, machines, forms and systems and routines. Only a few (say one to two) of these areas may be subjected to office audit at one time. An over-ambitious office audit programme involving a number of activities is bound to fail.

Office Audit and Management Audit

Management audit can be defined as the evaluation of the entire system of managing an enterprise. In the USA, for example, some in-depth studies have been undertaken in this area. In the USA defense department started management auditing of firms seeking contracts right from the early 60's. The main objects of management audit is to control management performance. Management audit is different from office audit. Office audit is primarily the job of auditing the quality of operations in the office, while management audit aims at evaluating the system of managing an enterprise. In other words, the aims of office audit can be said to be subsidiary to the management audit.

Management Audit and Operational Audit

It is necessary for the student and practitioner of office management to understand clearly the distinction between management audit and operational audit. Management audit aims at auditing the quality of managing as a system, and the operational audit checks the quality of different operations of the business. While some operations might be economical and successful, some others may be totally unsuccessful. And the over-all picture of the enterprise may be very rosy due efficiency in some operations or due to factors such as a sellers' market. In these circumstance, it is essential to separate the two types of audits, viz., the management audit and the operational audit. Office audit falls into the category of operational audit and may thus give a clear-cut idea about its efficiency and the contribution that it makes to the enterprise.

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QUESTIONS

1. What is the meaning of the term 'office manual'? Discuss its need in the work of the office.

2. How do manuals help to control office activity? Discuss any two types of office manuals.

3. Write a critical note on department practice manuals.

4. What are the aims of different types of office manuals?

5. You are the departmental head concerned with the management of records. You are required to draft the filing manual. State how would you draft this manual?

6. Discuss the merits and demerits of using office manuals.

7. Write notes on the following: (*a*) Policy Manual; (*b*) Organisational Manual; (*c*) Administrative Practice Manual; (*d*) Multi-purpose Office Manual; (*e*) Distribution of Office Manuals.

8. What are the principles for the preparation of office manuals? Outline the steps to be followed in the preparation of office manuals.

9. "It is necessary to revise office manuals." Comment.

10. What is office audit? Why is it needed? What are the basic areas for office audit?

11. Outline the stages in office audit. What steps are to be taken to institute office audit?

12. Your company, of which you are the controller, has expanded very rapidly. The top management thinks that it is time that operations of the office should be audited. State how would you perform this task.

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Chapter 23

BUSINESS REPORTS

WITH the increase in the size of operations of a business organisation or a Government department, it becomes necessary that the information collected for various purposes be condensed and communicated for necessary action. The executives rely on their subordinates to prepare reports to judge the performance; and planning activities are to be coordinated and controlled. Also the organisation has to be in touch with the general public and the Government departments. In order to achieve all this, it is desirable to prepare reports about various aspects of business. A report can be described as a *statement prepared to present facts relating to planning, coordinating, performance and general state of business in an organisation. It is* thus *a summary of managerial performance.* Littlefield[1] and others stress upon the importance of reports in these words: *Organisational distance, specialisation, and limitations of human comprehension force management to rely heavily upon reports in communicating information both downward and upward. Reports are basically summaries of information. A system of reporting is vital to any management information system but especially to a responsible, decentralised management . . . It logically follows then that each manager not only should, but must report on those operations for the firm for which he has accepted the responsibility and authority.*

OBJECTS OR FUNCTIONS OF REPORTS

Reports have the following objects or functions in view:

(*i*) **Measuring Executive Performance**

Reports aim at measuring executive performance and how such a performance can be improved.

(*ii*) **Help in Combating Changes**

Since business conditions, go on changing, they pose a serious

[1]Littlefield and others, *op. cit.*

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challenge to the existence, prosperity and growth of a firm. Reports aim at analysing the impact of business dynamics and how best changes can be exploited to the benefit of the firm.

(*iii*) Information for Planning

Planning has been recognised as the beginning of all functions of management. Reports give sufficient data and analyse this data on the basis of which planning can be done. Strategies can be spelt and targets can be set in physical as well as money terms.

(*iv*) Information for Controlling

In order to exercise control, information is to be collected about performance and is to be sent "upwards." This is also a basic object of reports. A system in which regular reports are sent can check unsatisfactory trends in performance, and corrective steps can be taken to counteract these trends before it is too late.

(*v*) Help in Coordinating

No management system can function unless there is coordination amongst the various departments of an organisation. Even within a department (say, the office, factory, marketing, etc.) coordination is a dire necessity. The coordination can be achieved, through reports which furnish the required facts and figures for the purpose.

(*vi*) Contact

Another object of reports is the desire and necessity to be in touch with the customers, shareholders, creditors and the Government.

(*vii*) Inter-firm Comparisons

Business enterprises operate in a competitive world. It is thus necessary to prepare reports with the purpose of rendering information and its analysis which help to make inter-firm comparisons.

CLASSIFICATION OF REPORTS

Reports can be classified on the following basis:

On the Basis of Direction

There can be upward reports or downward reports. Upward reports are those which are prepared by the subordinates and communicated to executives at higher level. Downward reports are those which move from the higher level in the organisational set-up to lower levels.

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On the Basis of Functions

There are different aspects of the functioning of a business, *viz.*, producing, marketing, financing, etc. A report may be prepared for one of these aspects. For example, there may be a routine report from a travelling salesman or a report about the progress made in finalising a financial deal and so on.

On the Basis of Legality

Sometimes legal aspects of certain problems in business may be examined. For example, before submitting a plan for expansion of plant capacity to the Government a report may have to be prepared with a view to have a clear idea about Government regulation of capacity so that efforts are not wasted in pursuing the matter further.

On the Basis of Time

Reports may relate to a problem only for a specific and well-defined period, whether past, present or future. It may be a continuing study of a problem submitted at regular intervals. Thus there may be continuing reporting or special-purpose reporting.

On the Basis of Finality

Sometimes the final report may take sometime before it can be submitted. Thus it becomes necessary to prepare an interim report for management decision-making.

On the Basis of Formal Relationship

Reports may be *formal* or *informal*. They are formal if they are based on the formal relationship in the organisation structure. Quite often, informal reports are asked for by the top and middle managers.

KINDS OF REPORTS

Reports prepared on the above bases can be grouped into two broad categories:

1. Routine Report, and
2. Special Report.

Routine Report

A routine report is one which is prepared from time to time regularly to record and present facts and figures. For example, a routine report of production may be prepared every week and similarly a report of weekly sales may be prepared.

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Special Report

Sometimes facts are to be collected specially and a report is prepared for a specific special purpose. For example, the makers of a car, before introducing it in the market, may go in for a sales forecast. A special report may then have to be prepared for this purpose. Similarly, if the wastage of raw materials, while they are processed, is too high, it may again be a subject of a special report. Again, unusually high employee turnover may be the subject-matter of a special report.

PRINCIPLES OF PREPARATION OF REPORTS

A report to be useful must be prepared on a sound basis. Whatever be the nature and type of report, it is necessary to observe certain fundamental principles of report preparation. In the preparation of a report, whether special or routine, the following principles must be observed:

1. Principle of Purpose

The report must have a specific and sound purpose which can be translated into more effective business management. Careful statement of purpose helps in the preparation of a well-directed report on which management can take the right type of action. Proper consideration of purpose is necessary because (*i*) reports form the basis for discussion of the facts and a recommendation; and (*ii*) they become the record for that phase of the business activity.

2. Principle of Organisation

It is necessary that the report should be well-planned and well-organised. The organisational plan of a report usually includes the following:

(*i*) The *purpose*, the information that it includes and the method used in collecting the data; (*ii*) the summary of the conclusions reached and the *supporting details*; (*iii*) the *problems* and solutions; (*iv*) the *recommendations* made for action; and (*v*) any *appendix* to explain and support the contents and conclusions of the report.

3. Principle of Brevity

The report should be brief. Brevity in reporting is essential because (*i*) long reports are expensive to prepare; (*ii*) long reports are difficult to analyse; (*iii*) long reports are subject to criticism as they show inefficiency; and (*iv*) long reports rely greatly on highlighting irrele-

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vant minor details and thus issues involved are ignored.

4. Principle of Clarity

It is essential that report should observe the principle of clarity. For this purpose, it is necessary to use simple language. If new terms are used, they should be properly defined and explained so that confusion does not occur at any stage. Besides, the report will fail to convey its message if it has long and complicated sentences. Simple language is a great asset of any report.

5. Principle of Scheduling

Reports should be scheduled in a way that they can be prepared without undue burden on the staff and with sufficient time to do the work well. However, the time interval between the collection of data and the finished report should not be long. If it is so, the report may become obsolete and thus useless by the time it is completed.

6. Principle of Cost

It is necessary to have a cost-benefit analysis of a report. A report should not only cost the minimum, it should also give the maximum benefit. If the cost of preparation of a report is unusually high and its consequent benefit is low, it would not be worthwhile to prepare such a report.

7. Principle of Follow-up

Reports must be followed up adequately. Follow-up is basically accountability control. Follow-up is necessary because a report presenting the best analysis and the best suggestions would be utterly useless unless it is followed up at all stages of its implementation.

QUALITIES OR ELEMENTS OF A GOOD REPORT

Report preparation requires sufficient training in collecting facts and their analysis; and arriving at a conclusion. A good report would reflect this. It is necessary that a report to be useful must have the following qualities:

1. Accuracy

Accurate data should be presented in a report. Inaccuracy of data will lead to wrong analysis, conclusion and follow-up.

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2. Simplicity

The report should be simple. The simplicity will allow for quick grasp.

3. Clarity and Analysis

The report must be clear and analytical to be useful. Lack of clarity and analysis will fail to serve the purpose for which it is meant.

4. Brevity

The report should also be brief and to the point. Brevity in report preparation is essential on account of the following reasons: (*i*) Long reports are costly to prepare. (*ii*) Long reports are difficult to analyse. (*iii*) Long reports reflect inefficiency. (*iv*) Long reports quite often ignore the main issue and highlight irrelevant minor details.

5. Proper Planning and Organisation

A report must be well-planned and well-organised. The report must incorporate the following organisational plan to be useful; (*i*) the purpose, the information that it includes and the method used in collecting the data; (*ii*) the summary of the conclusions reached and the supporting details; (*iii*) the problems and solutions; (*iv*) the recommendations made for action; and (*v*) the necessary appendices to explain and support the contents and conclusions of the report.

6. Title and Terms of Reference

A report must have suitable title, and also the terms of reference should be given in the report. Terms of reference would explain the purpose and contents of the report.

7. Proper Addressing

A report must be properly addressed to the reader (or readers) for whom it is meant, for example, the managing director, etc.

8. Signed and Dated

A report must be signed by the person responsible for it. It should also be dated so as to fix the historicity of the report at some future date.

STEPS IN REPORT PREPARATION

Once it has been decided of prepare a special or routine report, it is essential to name the personnel responsible for its preparation. A

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single individual may be responsible for its preparation, *e.g.*, the supervisor in the despatch section may report on the work in his section. In many cases, a commitee for the purpose may be appointed. Where a committee has been appointed, it would be desirable to name the Chairman, etc., and also define the functions of each member, if necessary. The individual or committee should follow the following steps in report preparation:

1. Collection of Necessary Facts and Figures

Necessary facts and figures should be collected keeping in view the purpose of the report.

2. Analysing Facts

Once facts have been collected, they should be suitably analysed statistically with the help of machines (or computers), if necessary. Where mathematical calculations are few, there may be no need to use the mechanised processes.

3. Discussion

Where a report is to be prepared jointly by two or more persons, it would be necessary to discuss the analysed facts so that definite opinions may be formed. It is the duty of the Chairman of the Committee responsible for preparing the report to give every member a fair chance to express his opinion, consent or dissent.

4. Report Writing

The last step in report preparation is its writing. The report should be written in a *proper format*. The format should contain the following *elements*:

(*i*) **Summary or memorandum.** Summary at the beginning of the report proves very useful for the busy executive. The summary of the report should include the purpose, objectives, and methodology, and condensed recommendations and conclusions.

(*ii*) **Table of contents.** It is necessary to give a table of contents in the beginning of the report. Table of contents gives at a glance a complete picture of what the report contains.

(*iii*) **Appendix.** The supporting and technical data should be separated from the main body and should be included in the report as an appendix. In this way the presentation of facts gains due prominence.

(*iv*) **Headings.** It is rightly pointed out, "Nothing is as dull as solid pages of report text. They are monotonous and discourage the reader

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from giving adequate attention to the information presented." It is thus necessary to give suitable headings and sub-headings to make the report readable.

(*v*) **Text.** While report is being written, use of suitable diagrams, etc., should be made. Simple language, clarity and brevity are the major qualities of a good report and they cannot be ignored.

TIMELINESS IN REPORTING

Timeliness is the essence of all reporting. A report is a useless and time-wasting exercise if the same is not prepared within a stipulated time. A relaxation of the time-limit may prove expensive (or even fatal) for business decision-making. For example, in the personnel office, complete data about the performance and task assigned must be collected at the end of each day to provide necessary data to the supervisor or foreman concerned. All this is essential so that fresh instructions are issued to the workmen, or machines are reset on the basis of the manufacturing plan.

The following *two* points are to be noted with regard to timeliness.

1. The informations to operating management should be available promptly. Such information is 'alive' and can be the basis for taking action.

2. The questions of timeliness and accuracy are related. "It is certainly better to have information based on some approximations in time to take action than it is to have absolutely accurate information with the same lack of glamour as the news in yesterday's paper."

Speeding up Issuance of Reports

The problem of timeliness is closely connected with the speed of issue of reports. Following techniques are now being used in some of the highly progressive companies for speeding up of the issuance of reports.

1. *Reviewing the system* of record-keeping with the aim of making changes to expedite reports.

2. Proper and careful *scheduling* of specific tasks to avoid bottlenecks.

3. *Accumulating certain figures* on daily, weekly or monthly basis so that minimum of work remains to be done at the end of the period of a routine report.

4. *Preparing forms*, etc., in advance.

5. *Using estimated figures* worked out by an experienced person

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with a thorough knowledge of the situation in place of certain actual figures which may not become available until several days later and delay the issuance of a report.

7. Using *mechanical, tabulating, or electronic equipment.*

8. Using "*flash reports*" to inform top management of an impending problem.

9. Proper *training* of the office personnel.

10. Where necessary, using *overtime* so that reports become available on time.

REPORTS CONTROL

A reports control system is a necessity in a large organisation. Such a control system is necessary to hold the quantity of reports and the details included in the reports within manageable limits. A report control system improves the quality of the information needed by the management for administrative action.

The reports system in an organisation must be evaluated continuously since business data, economic conditions and organisation situations are changing continuously. Without this continuous evaluation, some reports may be duplicated or reports may be prepared for areas for which reports are not needed.

Eliminating Unnecessary Reports

Unnecessary reports cost much in direct money terms, and in terms of executive and other time which is again a very costly element in organisational effort. The two *questionnaires* (Figs. 23.1 & 23.2) can be used to judge the need for retention or elimination of a report.

Preparation of the Master Report Control Schedule

In order to have a proper reports control, a Master Report Control Schedule (or Chart) should be prepared in which all the essential elements of the different reports are compared and analysed. This Master Reports Control Schedule usually contains the following particulars about a report: name and brief description of the report, number of copies prepared, where and how prepared, to whom circulated and for what purpose, the retention period, frequency of its issue and its cost.

The reports should be evaluated with the help of this Master Reports Control Schedule by the administrative manager or some other highly responsible executive. *In evaluating each report questions such as the following are asked*:

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REPORT QUESTIONNAIRE — (ORIGINATOR)
X — 70/

INSTRUCTIONS to be filled in by the person preparing the report listed below, and forwarded to Forms Control Department

To:	Division	Department
Name or Title of Report Being Surveyed		Form No. (If any)
Purpose		Dept'l Responsible for Preparation

Is this report made because of an official instruction or standard procedure? ☐ Yes ☐ No	If Yes, give Name & Date
If No, who originated it?	When?
How often is it prepared?	How many Copies?	How much Time does it Take to Prepare?
How is it produced? ☐ Hand ☐ Typewriter ☐ Other *(Explain)*	
List Sources of Data used in Preparation of Report	

Distribution of Copies *(Use reverse side, if necessary)*

	Name of Recipient	Title or Position	Location
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			

Please list any other Comments or Recommendations regarding this Report

Signed	Title	Date

FIG. 23.1 Questionnaire for Report Originator.

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REPORT QUESIONNAIRE — (RECIPIENT)
X–708

INSTRUCTIONS To be filled in by the recipient of the report listed below, and forwarded to Forms Control Department

To	Division	Department
Name or Title of Report being Surveyed		Form Number (If any)
Name and Title of Person issuing this Report to You		Location
Do you Use the Data on this Report ? ☐ Yes ☐ No	Could you get by without it ? ☐ Yes ☐ No	With less information ? ☐ Yes ☐ No
Could you receive it less frequently ? ☐ Yes ☐ No	If Yes, how often would you really need it ?	
How many copies do you now get ?	How many do you really need ?	
Is this report used as the basis of another, or a consolidated report ? (If yes, which ones ?) ☐ Yes ☐ No		
Does it duplicate any information you now receive ? (If yes, list names & titles of such reports) ☐ Yes ☐ No		
Do you have sufficient file space for it ? ☐ Yes ☐ No	Will it eventually go into storage ? ☐ Yes ☐ No	Will it be destroyed eventually ? ☐ Yes ☐ No
Has a retention period been established ? ☐ Yes ☐ No	If not, how long need it be kept ?	
Please list any other Comments or Recommendations regarding this Report		
Singned	Title	Date

FIG. 23.2. Questionnaire for Report Recipient

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1. Is this report necessary?
2. Can it be combined with other reports?
3. Can it be condensed?
4. Are all data relevant to the purpose and use of the report?
5. Can the frequency of its issue altered?
6. Is the report put to use in making sounder management decisions?

Evaluating Reports

The reports should be evaluated with the help of the data made available by the two questionnaires (given as Fig. 23.1 and Fig. 23.2) and the Master Reports Control Schedule by the Office Manager or the concerned departmental manager or some other highly responsible executive.

Follow-up of Reports

There is a great need for a follow-up action both in the case of the routine reports as well as special reports. This is so because in many cases, there are *controllable conditions*. These controllable conditions are of *two* types:

(*i*) Those which can be adjusted by a particular supervisor; and

(*ii*) Others which are controllable outside that department, *i.e.*, by other departments or by management personnel at middle or top management levels.

Quite often the second set of conditions exists. For example, cost reduction is not the sole reponsibility of a single individual or a single department. The responsibility of the Office Manager, like any other important Manager, involves recording, measuring, interpreting and reporting so that the productive resources of the organisation are used effectively. He should strive to devise or suggest means of accomplishing these functions in a more timely fashion, or at least cost, or in a way that will provide necessary corrective action.

If ever a report seems useless it should be abandoned, and if it is a routine report it should be discontinued in future for the purpose of economy and smooth functioning of the organisation.

QUESTIONS

1. What are business reports? State their objects or functions.
2. What are the functions of a 'Report'? State what principles would guide you while drafting a report?

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3. What do you understand by the term 'reports control'? How can you affect it?

4. Distinguish between "routine" and "special" reports. Discuss briefly the principles that should be applied in preparing reports.

5. Write a note on the qualities of a good report.

6. Illustrate the different classes of reports.

7. Outline the steps in the preparation of a report.

8. "Timeliness is the essence of all report." Discuss.

Also discuss how issuance can be speeded up.

9. There has been a great proliferation of different types of routine reports. The costing department informs that reports-making has become a very costly process. Since you are the Secretary & Controller of the organisation, it is your job to eliminate unnecessary reports. Make suitable suggestions about the elimination of such reports.

10. Write notes on the following: (*a*) Evaluation of reports; (*b*) Follow-up of reports; (*c*) Master Report Control Schedule.

11. As the office manager, you have been directed by your Managing Director to prepare a suitable report on the over-consumption of stationery in the office and the steps which can be initiated to reduce its consumption. Draft the report.

12. As the office manager, you have been told to prepare reports on the following: (*a*) Supervisors' training; (*b*) Improvement in the efficiency of the typing pool; and (*c*) Promotion of office employees. Draft three reports.

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Chapter 24

STATISTICAL DATA

IT will not be an exaggeration to say that modern society relies much on statistical data for its existence. Whether it is the Government or a business firm, statistical data form the basis of its functioning. All economic planning of the Government is based on statistical data. The failure or success of the modern Government is measured with the help of statistical yardsticks. Similarly modern business makes use of statistical data and tools in all its aspects of functioning. The marketing strategy, the financing, the representations to be made to the Government, the measurement of the efficiency of labour, etc., make use of statistical data. A complete study of statistical techniques is not our objective since such a study requires a separate treatise. We would be studying statistics and statistical methods in a limited way with an eye on their use in the office.

NEED FOR STATISTICAL DATA IN THE OFFICE

The statistical data are needed in the office for preparing various types of reports and surveys. The problem of preparation of reports has been discussed in the chapter on *Business Reports* in the book. These reports cannot be prepared unless proper and adequate numerical data are available. Collection of data is the first and perhaps the most important aspect of report preparation in the office. Soundness of conclusions depends much on the accuracy of the data used for a report. The data can be obtained from either (*a*) the internal sources, such as books of records, registers, files and personal interview of people in the organisation; or (*b*) the external sources, such as, newspapers, magazines, journals, Government departments, individuals, universities, research institutions, management consultancy firms, stock exchanges, financial institutions and other companies, etc.

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PHASES OF DATA COLLECTION

Broadly speaking there are two phases of data collection. **They are:** I. Planning the enquiry, and II. Executing the enquiry for report preparation.

I Planning the Enquiry[1]

Proper planning of the enquiry is essential to obtain the right kind of data. Planning of the enquiry involves the following steps:

1. Purpose of the report. Clear statement of purpose of report is essential because the purpose of the report to be prepared will determine the type of data to be collected. If the purpose of the report is to determine the efficiency of machinists in the production department, it would be necessary to measure their respective performances over a period of time. The idea may be to correlate the performance with wages and find out how wage-incentives improve performance of workers. However, purpose should be well-defined and should not be left to be defined by individuals on the spot. Such a situation would create a lot of confusion and the report preparation may prove to be a fruitless task.

2. Scope of the report. Along with the purpose, it would be desirable to define the scope of the report. The two problems of purpose and scope are interrelated. The scope of report implies the coverage in terms of geographical area, the type of information needed and the subject-matter. For example, the report to be prepared on sales performance may be territory-wise or product-wise or salesman-wise.

3. Defining statistical unit. The statistical unit used must be clearly defined before data are collected. A statistical unit is a scale or index in terms of which numerical facts are collected. In other words, a statistical unit is a unit of measurement in terms of which data collection is done. For example, in a transport company if the cost of running the fleet is to be calculated, the statistical unit would be ton-kilometer or passenger-kilometer. The statsitical unit selected should be specific, stable and uniform; and once it is selected, all the data must be collected in terms of this.

4. Time factor. The time available with the person concerned is again a factor to be considered. If the time allowed for the preparation of a report is short, it shall influence the accuracy of the data to

[1]The term "enquiry" can be defined as the search for knowledge. In our case, it means search for statistical facts.

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be collected.

5. Census techinque versus sampling technique. A report may rely on sampling technique. Census technique implies that every item is covered, while sampling implies that a few items are selected at random and observations about them are recorded and analysed for report preparation. Often sampling technique is employed in a report where the number of observations is very large. Where the number of observations is small, it would be ideal to study all the items. For example in an office, if a report is to be prepared about the only two typists working in the organisation, census method shall be employed. *The decision to use the census or the sampling technique would depend much on* (*i*) the *purpose* of the report; (*ii*) the *resources* of time and money available to the persons responsible for data collection. If the purpose of the report is to study in great detail the relevant problem, it would be proper to use census technique; (*iii*) the degree of *accuracy* desired is another factor that may weigh in favour of census method. On the other hand, sampling method ensures quickness and lesser use of resources.

6. Degree of accuracy needed. It is necessary to decide about the degree of accuracy needed for the purpose of the report under question. It is impossible to have 100% accuracy in the data collected since (*i*) statistics are based on estimates; (*ii*) the tools of measurement are never fool-proof and perfect; and (*iii*) unintentional bias on the part of the person collecting the data. However, some measure of accuracy is essential. Factors which influence the degree of accuracy are: (*i*) the *object* of report; (*ii*) *time* at the disposal of the persons collecting the facts for report preparation; and (*iii*) the financial *resources* available for data collection. In report preparation, time factor is perhaps the most important factor. If accurate information has been gathered after spending considerable amount of time, it may prove useless because by the time the report is prepared, it may become obsolete.

II. Executing the Enquiry

Once enquiry for the collection of data for report preparation has been planned, the next stage is the execution of the plan. The Office Manager should help the collectors of statistical data with all the means at his disposal. On the part of the executive preparing the report he would do well to consider the following factors:

1. Devising administrative set-up. The executive incharge of report preparation should help the office manager in devising the right type of administrative set-up for the purpose. In a Government depart-

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ment, there may be a very elaborate organisational set-up for a particular Commission's or Committee's report preparation. Many important and high-ranking official and non-officials are involved in the process. In a business organisation, the type of set-up depends upon the importance of the problem under study. A minor issue may require no significant organisational set-up. On the other hand, major issues plaguing the business may require an elaborate administrative set-up involving a number of senior and junior executives. The administrative set-up should be so designed that the work of data collection goes on smoothly.

2. Forms designing. Suitable forms for collecting facts, both quantitative and qualitative (where necessary), should be devised. These forms or questionnaires should be simple to understand and easy and brief to fill up.

3. Proper seleetion and training and supervision of data collectors. Scientific selection and adequate training of persons responsible for data collection are necessary. This is particularly of great importance where data for report are to be collected from outside the Government department or business organisation. It is also essential to supervise and coordinate their work. The data may be collected by the existing office staff or through fresh entrants in the office. So far as the existing staff is concerned adequate information exists in the office to judge their capabilities. Proper supervision means more than one thing. It should be seen that the right type of data is collected and efforts are not duplicated. Besides, data are collected in time.

4. Follow-up. Quite often there is no adequate response from a particular department of the organisation, a Government department, individuals or firms. It is necessary to make suitable arrangement for follow-up in cases of non-response through a telephone call, a letter or even a personal visit by one of the teams.

5. Information presentation. For writing the report, it is desirable to present the information in a simplified form. Suitable diagrams, graphs and tables enhance the value of the report. For example, in the Directors' Report, there may be simple diagram depicting how the revenue earned has been distributed or what is the cost composition of the important products.

6. Statistical analysis. Statistical analysis must be conducted, where necessary. The statistical methods used for analysis must keep in mind the object of the report. Sometimes only ratios and percentages may serve the desired purpose but at another time, a more sophisticated analysis may have to be made. The use of calculating machines or computers may have to be made to analyse the data.

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For example, for a sales forecast, analysis may have to be more perfect so that adequate resources are geared to the demands of probable sales.

7. Writing the report[1]. After the data have been analysed, the work of writing the report will be taken up. The report embodies the result obtained through enquiry or investigation. The report should be simple and analytical. It should convey the results and conclusions in clear terms. Recommendations, if any, should be straight and based on facts. The report should suggest, as far as possible, the machinery for implementing suggestions. Final writing of the report should not miss the human factor of acknowledging contributions made by individuals or departments or firms in the conduct of the investigations and subsequently in the writing of the report.

LIMITATIONS OF STATISTICAL DATA

Statistical data, though of immense value, have their own limitations. Not only they can be inaccurate, they also suffer from the following limitations:

1. Consideration of quantitative aspect. Statistical data consider only the quantitative aspect of facts and they are incapable of measuring the qualitative aspect directly. For example, the honesty of the employee, effort of the salesman, the hard work of the supervisor, the intelligence of the executive, etc., cannot be measured directly.

2. True on an average. The conclusions drawn from the statistical data are not universally true. In other words, the conclusion drawn cannot be true for each and every item of study because statistics deal only with averages and ignore the extreme values.

3. Misuse of statistics. Misuse of statistics can be taken to be the greatest limitation of statistics. They can be interpreted by the investigator in any manner he likes. W. I. King sums up this problem in these words: "One of the shortcomings of statistics is that they do not bear on their face the label of their quality."

The above limitations of statistics suggest that the statistics collected for the preparation of a report must be interpreted with great care. The user of statistical data must be one who is well-trained in the use of statistical data. A scientific approach to the problem of the use of statistics is needed. The Committee, Commission, team or the executive preparing the report should not have a biased mind towards the

[1] See chapter "Business Reports" in the book for contents and qualities of a good report.

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problem under study. The elimination of the subjective element is what is needed.

SOURCES OF DATA

Along with the purpose of the enquiry and the administrative set-up that must accompany to achieve the purpose, it would be necessary to decide about the sources of data for the purpose of the report. The data may be collected through either of the two sources: (*a*) Primary sources, or (*b*) Secondary sources.

(A) PRIMARY SOURCES

Primary sources of data are those sources in which data are collected through original investigation. In other words, it is a process in which statistical data are collected first hand. The data so collected are called the *primary data*. The process of collecting primary data can be simply described as collection of data.

Collection of Data—Use of Primary Sources

There are many methods of collecting primary data. One or more of these methods can be used to collect data for report preparation. Methods of collecting primary data are summarised below:

1. Observation and experimentation. Observation can be described as the faculty of seeing and noting. It is the act of recognising and noting phenomena as they occur in nature. It is quite different from experiment. Experimentation is the process of noting reaction of a phenomenon under controlled conditions. Experiment refers to the act of doing something to test a theory. Observations might be made, for example, in a large retail store regarding location of different departments. The natural reactions of customers entering the store may be noted and the best layout of different departments may be then made. On the other hand, an experiment may be conducted to test the effectiveness of a plan or hypothesis. An experiment is conducted and observations are recorded. Such observations are properly classified, tabulated and analysed with a view to use them for preparing a report or taking managerial decisions in the organisation. For example, a first hand information can be gathered regarding the impact of wage incentive plan in the office. A review and analysis or recorded observations would indicate the increase (or decrease) in workers response. Similarly, institution of systems in the office can be the subject for an experiment. The areas of experimentation in a business organisation

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(or a Government department) are unlimited.

Advantages. Such a method has its own advantages, which are summarised as follows:

(*i*) *Greater accuracy.* The data collected are more accurate since they are gathered first hand.

(*ii*) *Greater objectivity.* The observations are recorded in a scientific manner. Thus the data collected are bound to be more objective. Most of the subjective elements and bias get eliminated.

(*iii*) *Better control.* Better control can be exercised over variable. This factor helps in drawing proper and correct conclusions.

Limitations. The method of observation and experimentation has its own limitations, chief of which are summarised below:

(*i*) *Time-consuming.* The method is time-consuming and hence unsuitable in cases where quick decisions are to be made to meet the demands of a particular situation.

(*ii*) *Costly.* The method also proves more costly as a result of the long time needed to collect data for report preparation.

(*iii*) *Personal bias.* Personal bias of the observer may creep into data. This may thus distort the conclusions and the very purpose of experiment may be defeated.

(*iv*) *Carelessness of observer.* If the observer is not careful enough, the data collected may prove useless. Thus all the time, money and effort spent may go waste. This also means that wrong conclusions may be drawn and hence utter failure of the experiment.

2. Interview method. It is a method which implies the use of direct conversation with the subject or witnesses who can furnish the relevant data. Interview has the objective of recording hitherto unknown information. The interview takes place and the observations are recorded which are put to further statistical use for the purpose of report preparation in the office. On many occasions, it is a follow-up measure to check upon the reliability and accuracy of data collected through the questionnaire method or correspondence with the subjects.

Qualities of the interviewer. The method collects objective data, or subjective facts, depending upon the needs of the inquiry. In order to collect the right type of data, it is essential that the interviewer must have certain qualities. They are summed up as follows:

(*i*) *Proper education and training* are necessary qualities of the interviewer. He should not only have a thorough grounding in the theoretical aspect of data collection, he should also be well-trained for the job keeping in view the objects of enquiry.

(*ii*) He should have *tact and adaptability*. Since he is doing a job in

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which he is going to face different kinds of human behaviour, he must be tactful and adapt himself to his environment.

(*iii*) *Persistence* is another personal quality which the interviewer must possess. Sometimes it is hard to obtain information from the subject in one contact. Persistence and tenacity pay rich dividends in such a case.

(*iv*) *Self-confidence* is needed by the interviewer in great measure without which he may not be able to extract much out of his subject of inquiry. Self-confidence is necessary to keep in a balanced mental state while he carries on the interview.

(*v*) *Ability to extract the right type of information* from the informant is an essential quality of the interviewer. Useless information, if collected, proves futile and creates frustration.

(*vi*) *Good memory* is also of great importance where information is of a confidential nature and the informant is unwilling to give a written information or does not relish the idea that somebody should note it. A good memory helps the interviewer to reproduce the information after the interview is over.

(*vii*) *Miscellaneous personal qualities* like sympathy with the subject on certain issues, simple language, accurate and to the point questions, etc., go a long way in gathering the right type of information.

In brief, the interviewer must be professionally competent and must possess certain basic personal qualities so that he works effectively.

Advantages of interview method. The method has many advantages chief of which are as follows:

(*i*) *Flexibility.* Flexibility is its strong point. The nature of questions to be put can be changed with reference to the concerned person and the prevailing conditions.

(*ii*) *Reliability.* The method is very reliable since it relies on personal interview by well-trained interviewer. Reliability increases the utility of data. Statistical interpretation can be more accurate and the consequent results may be very encouraging.

(*iii*) *Adequate information.* Besides reliable information, interview method also ensures adequate information. The interviewer is able to extract as much information as he needs for the purpose of the enquiry.

(*iv*) *informal method.* Interview method is a more informal method and hence the best can be drawn out of the subject.

Drawbacks of interview method. The interview method has its limitations, chief of which are as follows:

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(*i*) *Costly*. The method is very costly considering the very nature of the working of the method. This is more so where the number of subjects to be interviewed is very large and these subjects are spread over a wide area. The cost of training of interviewers might be substantial. The cost of contacting, like travelling and other expenses, might be very high.

(*ii*) *Time-consuming*. It is a time-consuming method since interviews can take place only on the convenience of the subjects. Where unusually long time is taken, the very purpose of enquiry might be defeated.

(*iii*) *Inexact replies*. Inexact, and thus useless, replies are received quite often. It is obvious that one is bound to be more exact when writing a reply. This is a serious drawback in those cases where subjects are uneducated, ill-informed or possess a bias towards certain attitudes, etc.

(*iv*) *Personal bias of the interviewer*. It is likely that the personal bias of the interviewer may get reflected in the interview record. The facts may be recorded with a prejudiced view and hence they may not represent the true state of affairs.

Considering the above merits and demerits of the interview method, it can be said that the method must be used most carefully by the interviewer with an open mind. The object of collecting the correct information must be kept in mind. The method can prove to be very useful where the subject-matter is of a confidential nature and the subject of inquiry are not widely dispersed, usually confined to a given area or organisation.

3. Questionnaire by post method. Under this method a questionnaire, containing a list of questions, is mailed to the informants. The questionnaire contains questions as well as adequate space for answers. A covering letter is addressed to the subject or the informant explaining the object of enquiry and making a request to fill up the questionnaire and for mailing it back. Many times prefatory paragraph is introduced in the questionnaire itself at the top.

Advantages. The method of questionnaire through post has certain distinct advantages, more important of which are summarised below:

(*i*) *Unlimited coverage*. The method is excellent where field of investigation is wide and the number of informants is large. Theoretically, the method can gather information from subjects located thousands of kilometres away in different parts of the world. Besides, any number of informants can be contacted depending upon the resources available. The method may thus be very beneficial where it is necessary to have a very large sample for enquiry.

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(*ii*) *Economical.* The method is also economical. The cost of postage is a fraction of the cost of a survey conducted under the other methods of primary data collection.

(*iii*) *Exactness.* Written replies are bound to be more exact. This adds to the accuracy of the data.

(*iv*) *Convenient.* It is also convenient from the point of view of the informant who can fill up the questionnaire at his convenience. He is not forced to spend undue time for interview.

Drawback or limitations. Although the method offers a number of important advantages, yet it has its own drawbacks. They are summarised below:

(*i*) *Limitation of literacy.* The method cannot be used at all where the informants are illiterate. Thus they can neither understand the questions nor send back the replies.

(*ii*) *Uncertain response.* Since the informants are not compelled to respond (compulsion can be imposed only by the Government under the law for a limited objective in a few cases), response may be uncertain. A low rate of response results in the wastage of time, money and effort. In other words, enquiry may turn out to be a frustrating experience in terms of high costs of enquiry and the delays resulting from non-response and follow-up. However, a pilot survey *by pre-testing* the questionnaire can be conducted to improve response. This again means additional cost and time spent. Besides, pre-testing of the questionnaire may not improve the response at all.

(*iii*) *Inaccuracy of data.* It is quite likely that some of the information may be quite inaccurate on account of ignorance of the informants. Besides, it is nearly impossible to check the reliability of the data on account of their lack of interest. Whatever be the cause, the data so collected may not serve the object of the enquiry. Hence the enquiry may turn out to be a useless and misleading exercise.

In spite of the limitations of the method of questionnaire by post, it must be accepted that the method is economical where geographical coverage is wide and the informants are literate and responsive.

Drafting the questionnaire. Questionnaire can be described as the soul of the enquiry. It is, therefore, desirable that great care should be taken to draft a qusetionnaire. The past experience, if any, must be used judiciously in drafting the questionnaire. It is very difficult to lay down any set norms to frame the questionnaire. The questionnaire should be so framed that it suits the purpose of the enquiry and evokes the greatest response. It is worthwhile to pay attention to the following considerations in preparing a questionnaire:

1. *Using covering letter.* A covering letter to be sent along the

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questionnaire may be prepared stating the objectives of the enquiry and self-introduction. The covering letter should assure the informant that the information supplied would be strictly confidential and a copy of the survey report will be sent to him on completion. A self-addressed adequately stamped envelope may be mailed to get response.

2. *Minimum number of questions.* Considering the objective of the enquiry, the number of questions in the questionnaire should be minimum.

3. *Right type of questions.* Right type of questions should be put. Irrelevant and unproductive questions may bring in irrelevant data which may be useless from the point of view of the enquiry.

4. *Short and simple questions.* The questions should be short and very simple to understand and consequently simple to answer.

5. *Clarity of questions.* The questions should be clear and avoid ambiguity and misrepresentation so that only the right types of answers are extracted from the informants.

6. *Avoidance of personal questions.* Personal questions must be avoided at all costs because they generate bad reactions in the minds of most of the people. Personal questions also lower the prestige of the organisation conducting the survey. Besides, the answers sought may never be obtained.

7. *Logical arrangement of questions.* Questions should be logically arranged in order to evoke a spontaneous and true response. Logical arrangement also allows for better processing of data at a later stage.

8. *Avoidance of mathematical calculations.* The questions must not strain the informants. They should not be required to make mathematical calculations like ratios and percentages, etc. The informants must not be requested to prepare charts, diagrams and graphs etc. Such requests only result in non-response.

9. *Questions should evoke objective answers.* The questions should be framed in a manner that they evoke objective answers. Subjective answers lead to wrong conclusions.

10. *Small size of answers.* The questions should require brief answers. It would be ideal to have such questions for which answers may be in simple 'Yes' or 'No'. In fact, against questions these two alternative words should be printed.

11. *Provision of proper space for answers.* It is necessary to provide adequate and proper space for the answers. Boxes for putting crosses and ticks must be provided. If a computer is to be used the spacing must be done with reference to it.

12. *Look.* A presentable questionnaire creates a better impression in the minds of the informants and hence better goodwill of the

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organisation. The questionnaire can be printed or cyclostyled. A printed questionnaire certainly adds to the look.

13. *Correct size and quality of paper.* If the questionnaire is to be used for further analysis on a computer, the size of the questionnaire should suit the requirements of the computer to be used for the purpose. Also the quality of the paper to be used must be good. It may be proper to use the 'card paper' where too many people are to use the questionnaire or where the number of operations to be carried on are too many.

Following is the illustration of a questionnaire concerning the collection of data regarding office Practices, Procedures and Policies, etc. in India.

QUESTIONNAIRE

*Survey of Office Practices, Procedures and Policies, etc., in India.**

1. Name of the Company .....
2. Designation of the Head of the Office. .....
   .....
3. Nature of the functions of the Head of the Office. .....
   .....
   .....
4. Name of the present Head of the Office. .....
   .....

5(*a*) Method of Recruitment used in the Office.
- (*i*) Advertisement ..... Yes/No
- (*ii*) Employment Exchanges ..... Yes/No
- (*iii*) Employee Recommendations ..... Yes/No
- (*iv*) Relatives and Friends ..... Yes/No
- (*v*) Casual Callers ..... Yes/No
- (*vi*) Schools/Colleges/Universities ..... Yes/No
- (*vii*) Foreign Collaborators ..... Yes/No
- (*viii*) Directorate of Resettlement & Training ..... Yes/No
- (*ix*) Personnel on Deputation .....

(*b*) Any other source .....

6 (*a*) Do you take written and practical tests of all the recruits to the clerical cadre? ..... Yes/No

(*b*) Do you interview clerical personnel? ..... Yes/No

(*c*) Do you recruit Management Trainees in the Office? ..... Yes/No

(*d*) Do you take written test of these Management Trainees? ..... Yes/No

(*e*) Do you interview the Management Trainees? ..... Yes/No

*Please cross out which is not applicable.

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(*f*) Minimum Qualifications for Management Trainees .....

.....

7. (*a*) Do you take written tests of executives recruited directly in the Office? ..... Yes/No

(*b*) Do you interview these executives ? .... Yes/No

8. (*a*) Total No. of Executives in the Company .....

(*b*) Total No. of Executives in the Office .....

(*c*) Total No. of Employees in the Organisation .....

(*d*) Total No. of Employees in the Office .....

9. What do you think is the proper span of control/management in the Office? .....

10. Do you train your office workers within the organisation? ..... Yes/No

11. Do you also send your employees for training outside your organisation? ..... Yes/No

12. No. of Telephone Connections .....

13. (*a*) Do you have PBX/PABX? ..... Yes/No

(*b*) If so, the number of connections .....

14. Do you have a centralised typing pool? .... Yes/No

15. Do you have separate secretaries attached to important office personnel also? ..... Yes/No

16. Floor areas occupied by the "Office"! .....

17. Did you consult some consultant to layout your office? ..... Yes/No

18. Average No. of letters received in the office everyday .....

19. Average No. of letters despatched per day .....

20. Average No. of telephone calls received per day .....

21. Average No. of telephone calls made per day .....

22. Which type of filing method/methods your office has adopted? Please specify. .....

.....

23. (*a*) Which method of classification your office follows?

.....

(*b*) Which method of indexing is used by you? .....

24. (*a*) Do you have an inter-com system? ..... Yes/No

(*b*) No. of lines in the inter-com system .....

25. (*a*) Do you have an addressograph (or address printing machine)? ..... Yes/No

(*b*) What is its capacity? .....

26. Do you have postal franking machine? ..... Yes/No

27. (*a*) Do you have stencil duplicators? ..... Yes/No

(*b*) The number of these duplicators .....

(*c*) How many of them are hand operated? .....

28. Do you have some other types of methods/machines for duplicating? If so please specify them. .....

.....

29. Rate the following factors (in order of merit by putting 1 against the most important factor and so on) of machines and equipment selection.

(*i*) Cost of Purchase.

(*ii*) Benefit.

(*v*) Multiple Use.

(*vi*) Durability.

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(*iii*) Suitability.
(*iv*) Standardised equipment (for ease in addition and replacement).
(*vii*) Look.
(*viii*) Operating Costs.
(*ix*) Simplicity (for ease in staff training).

30. Please specify various types of machines used in the office .....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

31. (*a*) Do you have a computer? ..... Yes/No
(*b*) If you do not have a computer, do you make use of some outside computer services? ..... Yes/No

32. Do you make use of management consultants to recruit your office staff? ..... Yes/No

33. Any other information .....
.....
.....

4. Schedules[1] sent through enumerators or interviewers. Instead of sending questionnaires by post, schedules might be prepared and sent through enumerators. The enumerators or interviewers contact the informants and write out the answers to different questions in the schedule in their own handwriting. The method is sometimes combined with the method of questionnaire through post in order to check upon the accuracy of the data and to extract information of personal type.

Advantages. The method has a number of advantages, more important of which are as follows:

(*i*) *Accuracy and reliability.* The data collected are accurate and hence more reliable. The accuracy of the data can be ensured by the enumerators who can seek clarification through supplementary questions.

(*ii*) *Elimination of uncertainty of response.* Since the enumerators go personally to the informants, non-response is almost totally eliminated. Non-response distorts even the collected data because the informants not responding are often a part of the random sample or representative sample.

[1]A schedule can be taken to be a little different from a questionnaire. Questionnaire is filled up by the informants while schedule contains questions which are asked and filled in a face-to-face enquiry by the enumerators or interviewers. Basically the two are the same in contents. However, in the case of a schedule, the accent is on collection of even more personal and difficult data.

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(*iii*) *Ideal where informants are illiterate.* It is an ideal method of collecting data in those circumstances where informants are illiterate.

Drawbacks or limitations. The method of schedules sent through interviewers has the following main limitations:

(*i*) *Costly.* The method is very costly because interviewers are to be paid and hence can be used on a limited scale by smaller organisations and individuals. Only bigger organisations and the Government can use this method. Even the Government uses this technique sparingly, *e.g.*, to collect census data every ten years.

(*ii*) *Bias of the interviewer.* The collected data may reflect the bias of the interviewer. Thus the interpretation of the biased data may give misleading results and lead to wrong conclusions. However, with a proper training of the interviewers this element can be minimised.

(*iii*) *Time-consuming.* The method may prove to be very time-consuming since the schedule can be completed only at the convenience of the informants. The task of seeking appointments is a difficult one. Some informants may not be easily accessible on account of a number of reasons.

The method, however, produces more accurate results and eliminates non-response. Hence it can be very useful where the scope of enquiry is limited and the number of informants is small.

(B) SECONDARY SOURCES

Secondary sources are those sources in which data already collected and published are assembled. The data so collected are called the *secondary data.* Strictly speaking, the task of gathering secondary data is the task of compilation of data from various published (or even unpublished) sources. Thus secondary data are those which have already been gathered by some agency, *i.e.*, any person, government, research organisation, enterprise, etc.; and which can now be put to use for the purpose of the preparation of the report.

Compilation of Data—Use of Secondary Sources

Once it has been decided to use the secondary data, either exclusively or along with the primary data, it would be necessary to find out the sources of secondary data. In fact, in some cases of report preparation, sources of secondary data are defined at the very outset of the enquiry, while in some other cases, they are discovered as the enquiry proceeds. There are a number of ways in which sources of secondary data can be classified. Various types of classifioation of

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the sources of secondary data are as follows:

(*i*) **On the basis of publication**

1. Published Sources; and
2. Unpublished Sources.

(*ii*) **On the basis of source**

1. *Internal source, i.e.,* Company's own department's recorded statistical information; and
2. *External source, i.e.,* statistical information from outside the organisation or the department.

(*iii*) **On the basis of type of agency**

1. Government;
2. Semi-Government; and
3. Non-Government.

(*iv*) **On the basis of origin**

1. Foreign; and
2. Domestic.

Whatever be the sources of secondary data and basis of their classification, they can be broadly classified as (*a*) Published sources and (*b*) Unpublished sources. Internal records are often unpublished and for many office reports may be the only source as well as requirement.

Published source of secondary data. There are many types of published sources of secondary data, which are classified as follows:

1. *Publications of the central government.* Government departments publish a vast quantity of data on different aspects of economic, social, scientific and cultural life of people. These publications are of the following types:

(*i*) *Regular or periodic publications.* These publications appear regularly or after fixed intervals or there is near regularity, for example, *Census Reports, India Publication* (India 1982, etc.). Export and Import Policy Books and a host of periodicals, journals and magazines issued by the Government departments like the *Reserve Bank of India Bulletin, Employment News, Yojana, Company News,* etc.

(*ii*) *Irregular publications.* Irregular publications relate to the published reports of committees and commissions appointed by the Central Government on various aspects of economic, social and scientific issues and White Papers issued on various aspects of Governmental policy, for example, *Report of the National Commission on Labour, Report of the Banking Enquiry Committee,* various Acts, etc.

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2. *Publications of the state governments.* Various state governments also publish much statistical data. The data published by them can be classified into two categories: (*i*) Regular and Periodic Publications; and (*ii*) Irregular Publications. The state governments, like the Central Government, publish a number of magazines, periodicals and reports of Committees and Commissions. These publications are useful sources of statistical data.

3. *Publication of government companies and public corporations.* Government companies and public corporations publish large quantities of data about themselves. The data are published by them in the form of annual reports or special reports. These reports outline and pose many economic issues. They also illustrate various aspects of business policy and practice, *e.g.*, labour relations, marketing strategies, etc.

4. *Publications of the Reserve Bank of India and financial institutions.* The Reserve Bank of India and financial institutions like the Stock Exchanges, Life Insurance Corporation of India, Industrial Finance Corporation of India and commercial and industrial banks, etc., publish (besides their annual reports) much useful information. In fact, the monthly Bulletin of the Reserve Bank of India is a mine of statistical information concerning monetary and fiscal aspects of the economic functioning of the country. Many economic surveys conducted by them are an excellent business guide in many matters.

5. *Private sector companies.* Some of the bigger private sector trading and manufacturing companies gather information which gets included in their annual reports and can be tapped.

6. *Research institutes and private individuals and associations.* Many research institutes and individuals engaged in research gather and publish useful information. For example, the National Council of Applied Economic Research, Institute of Economic Growth, All India Management Association, Shri Ram Centre of Industrial Relations, Institute of Foreign Trade, Indian Law Institute, Institute of Labour Research, Institute of Applied Manpower Research, Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry, etc. Many independent researchers also gather and publish many types of data which can be used for the preparation of the reports.

7. *International agencies.* Many international agencies, like the ILO, UNO, etc., publish useful information, *e.g.*, the UN Statistical Year Book is a mine of information.

8. *Foreign governments, development agencies, research institutions and individuals.* Foreign Governments and individuals have deep economic interests in their own problems and the problems concern-

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ing our country. They gather data and publish the results which can be of immense value to the Government and companies in our country.

9. *Technical financial newspapers and other journals.* Many technical and financial and other types of newspapers and journals publish a variety of data. These data cover a very wide range of economic and financial aspects. In our country the Economic Times, Financial Express, Commerce, Economic and Political Weekly, etc., are engaged in two types of data publication, *viz.*, (*i*) the data gathered and reported by their own staff; and (*ii*) the data gathered and interpreted by individual researchers. Some of the foreign newspapers and journals also specialise in publishing specialised data, *e.g.*, the Wall Street Journal, Fortune, etc.

Unpublished sources of secondary data. Internal records are often unpublished and for many office reports may be the only source as well as requirement.

Preparation of Index

"It is necessary to prepare an index of secondary data for making a speedy reference to the source. Where records of the organisation are the source of data, even they should be properly classified and indexed. Similarly the outside sources should be classified and indexed. While indexing, it would be ideal to even identify the location of the source, where data have been collected from a particular library or some other office, it would be desirable to name that library or office.

Factors Affecting the Choice of Sources of Data

Before we consider the methods of data collection in detail, it is necessary to consider which sources of data are to be used for the preparation of the report. In fact, it would be ideal to pre-determine the sources of data to be used for report preparation. In deciding about the source, primary or secondary, it would be worthwhile to consider the following factors:

1. The purpose. The purpose of the report is a very important factor influencing the choice of the source. Where the available secondary data do not suit the purpose of the report, it would become necessary to collect the primary data.

2. Reliability of secondary data. Sometimes secondary data are available, but they are not reliable due to many causes, *e.g.*, the purpose for which they were collected is quite different from the purpose of the present report, the secondary data have become obso-

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lete, or they are collected by an unreliable agency.

3. Financial resources. Primary data collection is much more costly than the secondary data compilation. Thus availability of financial resources will affect the sources to be used. With lesser finance, secondary sources would become more dominant while primary sources can be exploited where sufficient funds are available.

4. Availability of time. It takes a long time to organise and complete an enquiry for the primary data. Shortage of time may make the use of secondary data compulsory.

5. Degree of accuracy. It is obvious that the primary data can be collected with a reasonable degree of accuracy and the standards of accuracy (which are pre-fixed) are known to the investigators. The degree of accuracy of secondary data is a matter of imagination based on available information. Therefore, where great accuracy is desired to prepare the report, only primary sources should be used.

METHODS OR TECHNIQUES OF COLLECTING DATA

Before launching data collection work, it is necessary to decide the technique to be used. Data can be collected in one of the two ways:

(*i*) Data are collected regarding each and every item with which survey is connected; or

(*ii*) Data are collected for some items or from some informants. These two alternative methods (or techniques) are called the Census Method and the Sampling Method.

Census Method

This method is also called the complete enumeration method. Under this method, data concerning each and every item or unit (individual, factory, field, retail outlet, etc.) is collected. In other words, data are collected for the whole of the '*universe*' or '*population*'. The 'universe' or 'population' means the total number of objects or units under study. For example, for the purpose of work measurement study in the office, the work output of each office worker is recorded and then the data are analysed.

Advantages of census method. Important advantages of census method are: (*i*) The method *studies all the items* of 'universe' and hence complete data become available. Nothing is left to imagination or estimation. (*ii*) Since data are complete, they are more accurate; and, therefore, more *accurate conclusion* can be drawn.

Drawbacks of census method. Census method has certain serious drawbacks which are summarised as follows: (*i*) It is a *costly* method

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since all items in the 'universe' are to be surveyed. (*ii*) It is also *time-consuming* because each and every item is to be covered. These two drawbacks place a serious limitation on the utility of the method. Census method may not be practicable in most cases involving large numbers of items of study.

Sampling Method

In order to overcome the limitations of the census method sampling technique is used. Under sampling technique only a part of the 'universe' is studied and the conclusions and inferences are drawn on that basis. The theory of sampling is based on two *principles*:

(*i*) Principle of *Statistical Regularity*; and

(*ii*) Principle of *Inertia of Large Numbers.*

Principle of statistical regularity. This principle is based on the theory of probability. According to King, "The law of statistical regularity lays down that a moderately large number of items chosen at random from a large group are almost sure on the average to possess the characteristics of the large group." Simply stated, the principle points out that if a sample is chosen at random from the universe, it is likely to possess nearly the same characteristics as that of the population.

Principle of inertia of large numbers. The principle is based on the principle of statistical regularity. The statement of the principle is thus: other things being equal, larger the size of the sample, greater the accuracy. This is so because large samples tend to be more stable.

Advantage of Sampling. Sampling technique offers the following advantages:

1. *Economy.* Sampling technique ensures economy since information is to be collected for a small number of items in the universe.

2. *Saving in time.* Besides saving on cost, sampling also saves on time. Thus the work of enquiry gets completed quickly and results are available in a short period of time. This factor increases the usefulness of the enquiry.

3. *Greater reliability of results.* More reliable results can be obtained through sampling due to the thoroughness with which sampling enquiry is conducted. This means data are accurate and hence reliable.

4. *Detailed information.* Due to the saving in expense and time, sampling technique allows for the collection of more detailed information for the sample.

5. *Compulsion due to circumstances.* There are certain situations in

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which only sampling can be used and the use of census method is impossible, for example, testing the quality of the screws, durability of motor cars, etc.

Drawbacks of sampling. In spite of its many advantages and wide usage, sampling has many drawbacks, which are summarised as follows:

1. *Careful planning.* Much time is to be devoted to the planning of a sampling enquiry because the accuracy of the data depends greatly on good planning.

2. *Employment of experts.* Only people well-versed in statistical methodology can plan and conduct a sample survey and obtain accurate results. These experts cost more and are also scarce.

3. *Effect of a complicated sampling plan.* Where the sampling plan is complicated, the time and financial costs may be more than the cost of conducting a census enquiry.

4. Sometimes information is needed for each and every item in the universe. Thus sampling technique cannot be used in such a situation.

Methods of sampling. Before the data are collected for the sample, it would be necessary to select the method of sampling. Different methods of sampling are discussed below:

(*i*) *Deliberate purposive, or judgment sampling.* In this sampling technique the sample is chosen by the investigator on the basis of his personal judgement or his own discretion. He chooses those items of the universe which he thinks are typical and would represent the characteristics of the group.

Advantages of deliberate sampling are: (*a*) It is simple; and (*b*) It is adaptable. The method can prove to be very useful in the solution of everyday problems of the business and helps it to derive atleast some conclusions.

Drawbacks of deliberate sampling are: (*a*) *Personal bias.* Personal bias is its greatest drawback. The investigator may choose a sample only to prove his pre-determined notions. (*b*) *Unscientific.* The method is unscientific as it excludes the possibility of the inclusion of a representative group of items. Therefore, conclusions drawn may be misleading.

(*ii*) *Random or representative sampling.* Random sampling is a technique in which each and every item of the universe gets an equal chance to be included in the sample. It is also known as representative sampling. Since the method does not leave anything to the discretion of the investigator, the method is also called the method of chance selection. There are two distinct methods of obtaining

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the sample: (*i*) *Lots* are drawn; or (*ii*) *Table of random numbers* provided by statisticians are used, *e.g.*, Tippet's table of random numbers, Fisher's and Yate's numbers and Kendall and Babington Smith numbers. Tippet's numbers are the most popular among these.

Advantages. The method has the following advantages: (*a*) *Personal bias is eliminated* since sample depends entirely on chance. (*b*) The random sample is also *representative* of the group and hence more accurate conclusions can be drawn. (*c*) The *analyst can assess the accuracy* of his estimate with great ease because sampling errors follow the principles of chance and the sampling theory happens to be the most developed.

Drawbacks. Its drawbacks are: (*a*) It is necessary to prepare a catalogue of all the items in the universe which is a very difficult task. (*b*) A large random sample will have to be chosen where the total number of items in the universe is large. (*c*) The work of preparing slips is costly as well as time-consuming. (*d*) Where enquiry is spread over a wide geographical area, much time and money are spent in conducting the enquiry. (*e*) Sometimes random sampling may produce non-random results which may be misleading.

(*iii*) *Stratified sampling.* This can be described as a variation of the random sampling technique. Under this method the universe is first divided into a number of homogeneous classes or strata. Having so stratified the universe, a random sample is taken from each class, group or stratum[1]. For example, in order to study the problem of absence amongst the office staff, the staff may be first divided into so many age groups and then the sample may be taken from each group. The size of sample from each class may be either equal or proportionate. A proportionate sample is better since it may be more representative. Supposing in our example, there are 1000 workers in the office and classified into 5 groups, *viz.*, below 30 years, 30-40 years, 40-50 years, 50-60 years, and above 60 years and the respective strength of the age groups is 400, 200, 200, 100 and 100 workers. Suppose we are to select a total sample of 100 workers, 40, 20, 20, 10 and 10 workers would be selected from the respective groups (in the ratio of 4 : 2 : 2 : 1 : 1) under the proportionate sample.

Advantages (*a*) A stratified sample is *more representative* since the population is divided into homogeneous groups and then random sampling technique is employed to choose a proportionate sample. (*b*) Greater *accuracy* of the data is secured because each stratum is made of homogeneous items. (*c*) Stratified sampling may also result

[1]Singular of Strata.

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in *economy* if stratified sampling is concentrated geographically.

Drawbacks (*a*) Stratification is a difficult task involving much time and expense because homogeneity must be properly defined and homogeneous items must be placed together. (*b*) Random Sampling may pose a problem and much skill is needed to choose the random sample from each group.

(*iv*) *Systematic sampling.* Under this method every *K* th* item is selected as a sample. Suppose we are to draw a sample of 100 out of 1,000 workers in the office. K will be 10 $\left(i.e., \frac{1000}{100} \right)$ and we take every 10tn item for our sample. The first item between 1 and 10 will be chosen at random. Suppose it is 6. We shall now go on adding 6 at each successive stage to obtain the sample. Thus the succeeding items would be 16 (6+10), 26 (16+10), 36 (26+10) and so on.

Advantages. (*a*) The method is more convenient to adopt than the random or stratified sampling. (*b*) The method also saves on time and effort. (*c*) It is a fairly accurate method provided there are no periodic features associated with the sampling interval.

Drawbacks. (*a*) Systematic samples may not be random samples unless the items in the 'universe' are first arranged at random. (*b*) Also if similar items occur at regular intervals, the results may be inaccurate and misleading. For example, in the study of productivity of employees, supposing every 10th employee in the sample produces the same quantity.

(*v*) *Multi-stage or cluster sampling.* It refers to a sampling technique which is carried out in many stages. The method operates thus: Random sample is taken from the items at the first stage. This sample is fairly large. From this first stage random sample units, another smaller random sample (or using some other technique) is taken at the second stage. From the second stage units, another sample is taken. There can be as many stages of sampling as the enquiry demands. For example, we want to know the effect of wage incentives in the Offices of the Government of India. Suppose we want to have a sample of 1,000 Government employees. From the total number a sample of 1,00,000 is taken at the first stage. At the second stage out of these 1,00,000 employees, a sample of 10,000 is taken and then at the third stage a sample of 1,000 is taken from the 10,000 employees. Thus as we move from the total number of items to our

*K (or Sampling Interval) $= \frac{\text{Size of the Universe}}{\text{Size of the Sample}}$.

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targeted sample, the number of items at each successive stage goes on diminishing.

Advantages. (*a*) It allows for *flexibility* since it allows division of the 'population' into parts (divisions) and sub-parts (sub-divisions) and allows for a wider coverage and yet intensive investigation can be carried on. (*b*) The method allows for contraction of sample at each successive stage. Therefore, the construction of the frame at each successive stage involves a diminishing number of items and *greater accuracy* can be secured for the contracting sample.

Drawbacks. The method has the major drawback of lack of accuracy when compared with the results obtained from single stage sampling units. The reason is that in the case of multi-stage sampling the bias in sampling is accentuated because bias is exercised at each successive stage of sampling.

(*vi*) *Quota sampling.* This is like judgment (or biased) sampling with some modification. The method can be stated thus: The items are divided into different categories on the basis of one of the many factors, like sex, region, occupation, income, qualities, etc. Then from each of these categories, a judgment sample on the basis of a fixed quota is chosen. For example, we want to test the market potential of a new product and divide our market into four zones on geographical basis. Eastern, Western, Southern and Northern. Sample quota is fixed at 20%, 30%, 10% and 40% for the respective regions. Suppose a total sample of 1000 is to be taken. Thus the number chosen would be 200 for the Eastern region, 300 for the Western region, 100 for the Southern region and 400 for the Northern region. Within these above quotas the investigator is free to choose any item as sample.

This method of sampling is only a little better than the judgment sampling. The advantages and drawbacks of the judgment sampling method apply to this method as well.

Best method of sampling. It is difficult to suggest a single method of sampling as the best method of sampling for report preparation. However, the following principles must be considered in adopting a particular method:

(*i*) *Principle of least cost.* Cost is a major component of any investigation. It must be kept in mind while adopting the sampling method. (*ii*) *Principle of least time.* It is necessary that the time spent in adopting a sample and subsequent enquiry must be the least. (*iii*) *Principle of accuracy.* The data obtained by using a particular sampling method should be accurate so that correct conclusions are drawn. (*iv*) *Principle of flexibility.* It is necessary that an element of

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flexibility must be present to ensure quick adjustment. (*v*) *Principle of elimination of bias.* Personal bias should be completely eliminated so that conclusions are objective and hence useful.

Considering the above principles, it can be said that stratified sampling and systematic sampling methods based on random technique are ideal and thus used widely.

Size of sample. The decision regarding the size of the sample is basic to a sampling enquiry. The accuracy of the data would depend much on the size of the sample. A sample size of 5% of the population has been suggested by some authorities on the subject while some others suggest a minimum sample of 1,000 units. In practice, however, there cannot be a rigidity about the sample size. In order to fix the sample size, following two points must be considered: (*i*) *Degree of accuracy.* Simple rule is: greater the accuracy needed, bigger the size of sample and vice-versa. (*ii*) *Range of variations.* The rule is: greater the variations in the individual items, bigger should be the size of the sample and vice-versa. Besides these two basic points other considerations may relate to availability of financial resources, and availability of time and talent for the enquiry.

Editing of Data

Editing is an important step towards analysis and interpretation of data collected through various sources and different techniques. Editing of data can be described as the process of scrutinising the data. This is done to discover possible errors and irregularities.

Editing of all kinds of data is important and more particularly that of the secondary data which have been collected second-hand. Therefore, before using secondary data great care should be taken to find out (*i*) the purpose of the original enquiry (Is it the same as yours?); (*ii*) the adequacy of the data; and (*iii*) the reliability of the data. The editing of secondary data should, therefore, consider the above factors.

PRESENTATION OF DATA

Once data have been collected for the office report or some other enquiry, it becomes essential to present the data in a suitable form to help understand their analysis and interpretation. The data are classified and tabulated and graphs and diagrams are prepared to present data in a simple form.

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Classification of Data

Classification of data can be defined as the process of arranging facts on the basis of their common characteristics. Objects of classification are: (*i*) *To condense* the mass of data so that it is easily comprehended; (*ii*) To facilitate *comparison*; (*iii*) To highlight the most *significant features* of the data; and (*iv*) To enable further *statistical treatment.*

Classification serves a very useful purpose in the analysis of data. Classification, therefore, has its own importance. Masses of data without classification is not easily understood. Classification separates the essential data from the inessential data and gives them a definite shape for understanding and for making comparisons. The relevance and adequacy (or otherwise) of data can be best understood only with the help of classification. Classification also reveals trends and gives prominence to outstanding features of data.

Types or basis of classification. Following are the different types of classification:

(*i*) *Geographical classification* is done on the basis of geographical location of the items under study, *e.g.*, per capita output of office workers may be shown branch-wise. Within geographical classification facts may be arranged in alphabetical order or on the basis of the importance of respective figures. (*ii*) *Chronological classification* is based on time, *e.g.*, days, weeks, months and years, etc. For example, number of phone calls is presented year-wise. (*iii*) *Qualitative classification* is made on the basis of attributes or qualities of the items. The qualitative classification may take into account factors like sex, skill, education, etc. For example, the office workers may be classified on the basis of sex—male workers and female workers. (*iv*) *Quantitative classification* is based on quantitative characteristics of the data, *e.g.*, height, weight, income in rupees, output in units, etc. To take an example, workers in the office can be classified as those drawing salary up to Rs 500, those drawing between Rs 500 and Rs 1,000 and those drawing above Rs 1,000 per month.

Tabulation of Data

Tabulation can be defined as a systematic arrangement of statistical data in columns and rows. *A statistical table is the logical listing of related data in vertical columns and horizontal rows with sufficient explanatory and qualifying words, phrases of statements in the form of titles, headings and notes to make clear the full meaning of data and their origin.* Tabulation follows classification to present data in a more understandable form.

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Purpose and significance of tabulation. Tabulation is significant for reports due to the following factors: (*i*) *Simplifies complex data.* Tabulation simplifies data for quicker and better understanding by eliminating unnecessary data and putting the data in neat rows and columns. Condensed data are given a definite shape. (*ii*) *Helps in comparisons.* Tables help in illustrating relationships and thus comparisons are facilitated. Totals and sub-totals of various groups and sub-groups help in making quick comparisons. (*iii*) *Gives identity to the data.* Tabulation gives identity to the data and they can be used as a source of reference. (*iv*) *Reveals patterns.* Table reveals patterns which can be clearly identified.

Parts of a table. A table to be useful must contain the following parts:

(*i*) Table number.
(*ii*) Title of the table.
(*iii*) Caption.
(*iv*) Stub (rows indicating the type of classification).
(*v*) Body of the table.
(*vi*) Head note (unit of measurement, etc.).
(*vii*) Footnote (indicating the source of data and the relevant remarks).

Methods of tabulation. There are two methods of tabulation which are described below:

1. Manual tabulation Manual tabulation, as the name implies, is done manually without the aids of machines. A *tally sheet* is prepared classifying the facts in groups or classes to which they belong. An item is counted by putting a vertical tally (1) against the relevant class and every fifth tally is a horizontal or a diagonal tally so that tallies are clustered in groups of five each to facilitate counting. Manual tabulation is simple and even speedy where the number of items under study is small. However, the method has its limitations. Where the facts are many and many calculations regarding ratios, percentages and totals are to be carried out, manual tabulation is time-consuming and costly. The unusual delay in the preparation of the table may prove to be costly because many management decisions may get delayed.

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Illustration of a Table:

TABLE 24.1

CAPITAL ISSUES—SIZE-WISE CLASSIFICATION*

RUPEES CRORES

Size	*Jan-June 1973*	*July-Dec 1973*	*Jan-June 1973*
1	2	3	4
1. Up to Rs 10 lakhs No of Companies Amount	8 0.49 (1.4)	12 0.86 (2.2)	20 1.62 (4.4)
2. Over Rs 10 lakhs and up to Rs 25 lakhs No of Companies Amount	19 3.55 (9.9)	26 5.13 (13.4)	28 5.36 (14.3)
3. Over Rs 25 lakhs and up to Rs 50 lakhs No of Companies Amount	19 7.49 (20.8)	25 9.84 (25.7)	23 9.01 (24.1)
4. Over Rs 50 lakhs and up to Rs 1 crore No of Companies Amount	11 8 41 (23.3)	11 8.70 (22.7)	11 8.67 (23.1)
5. Over Rs 1 crore No of Companies Amount	6 16.09 (44.6)	8 13.79 (36.0)	7 12.79 (34.1)
6. Total-No of Companies Amount	63 36.03 (100.0)	82 38.32 (100)	89 37.45 (100.0)

Note : Figures in brackets indicate percentages to total amount.

**Source : The Reserve Bank of India Bulletin*, March 1975.

2. *Mechanical and electronic tabulation*[1]. It is of immense value in the case of a large-scale survey. Tabulation work is carried on with the help of Punched Card Tabulating Machines and Electronic Computers. Large organisations and many Government departments make

[1] Also see Chapter 14 in the book.

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use of these machines. These machines are assembled in our country. A tabulating machine consists of three units, each performing a part of the operation. These units are: the *Key Punch*, *Sorter* and *Tabulator* which carry out three successive operations for tabulation work. *First* operation is the operation of getting data transcribed into holes punched on a card in predetermined positions with the help of the Key Punch. *Second* operation of sorting cards into classified groups is done by passing the cards through the Sorter. *Lastly* the punched cards are summarised and tabulated by the Tabulator. The Tabulator adds, subtracts and prints tables in a summary form ready for use. Electronic computers can also be used for tabulation work and they have proved versatile due to a number of accessories and parts attached to them.

Advantages. (*i*) Work of tabulation can be performed at a great *speed.* (*ii*) Machine tabulation is *accurate.* (*iii*) Machine *reduces monotony* and therefore reduces human errors and fatigue. (*iv*) Large-scale and complex surveys can be completed with great *ease.* (*v*) There is also *economy* in the cost of processing and analysing data.

Drawbacks. (*i*) *Machines are costly.* Thus their installation is justifiable only where the work is very large. In other cases, such machines may mean too much of a burden on the organisation. (*ii*) *Trained operators* are needed to run the machines and it may be difficult to find them. To train fresh entrants in the office for the work on such machines may also prove a time-consuming and costly process.

In spite of its drawbacks, machanical and electronic tabulation is becoming more and more popular on account of its great speed and accuracy. These two factors of speed and accuracy allow for quick report preparation and timely follow-up action.

Making tables in the report effective. Tables cannot serve their purpose unless they are effective. In order to make tables effective it would be worthwhile to keep the following factors in mind: (*i*) *Simplicity.* A table should be simple. Simplicity adds to the value of a statistical table. Adding too much information may make the table complicated and, therefore, it may be proper to divide the information into more than one table. Besides, it is necessary to restrict the number of rows and columns, etc. (*ii*) *Proper and systematic presentation.* Systematic arrangement enhances the value of a table greatly. The data should be arranged properly according to amount, size and time, etc. so as to highlight the features of the data. (*iii*) *Proper and neat arrangement.* Neat arrangement of data into a suitable number of columns and rows attracts and holds the attention of the reader. Quite often a smaller number of columns and a large number of rows may

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add to the 'look' of the arrangement. (*iv*) *Homogeneity in presentation.* The data should be homogeneously grouped in the table for a better understanding and easy grasp. (*v*) *Properly ruled.* A statistical table to be effective must be ruled properly. A table with a few (say two or three) columns may be prepared without rulings of the columns. Of course, ruling adds to the look and also simplifies it. Where columns for data are many, a proper ruling is essential.

Diagrammatic Presentation of Data

While preparing the office report or report of any survey or enquiry it becomes necessary to prepare diagrams and graphs. A mass of data though condensed in a table may yet be confusing and fail to convey the message (or result) to those for whom it is meant. In order, therefore, to convey data in a simple and effective manner diagrams and graphs may have to be prepared. For example, charts of productivity, profitability or sales, etc., are prepared by the office and included in the Directors' Report for presentation to the shareholders.

Usefulness of diagrams. Diagrams are very useful on account of the following reasons:

(*i*) *Data are easily understood.* Statistical tables though useful may not be easily understood by every reader of the data. Diagrams and graphs make the data simple and easy to understand. The significance of figures is highlighted by these aids to presentation of data.

(*ii*) Diagrams and graphs *appeal to eye.* This creates greater interest of the reader in the figures. Numbers speak through them.

(*iii*) Diagrams and graphs leave *lasting impression* on the viewer and increase the impact of the data.

(*iv*) They *help in making comparisons* in terms of time and geographical location. Thus the relationships between different comparable data can be best understood with their help.

Charts or diagrams and graphs cannot be a substitute for the statistical tables and other statistical devices to present statistical facts. They can be described as aids to presentation of facts. Their aim is to provide prominence to certain parts of the data. However, they must be used judiciously. An over-abundance of diagrams and graphs for depicting statistical data or different features of a report may devalue their utility and the very purpose of attracting attention for a lasting impression may be defeated. Besides their over-use may result in disturbing the continuity of the data in the user's mind.

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DIAGRAMS

A diagram can be described as a pictorial presentation of statistical data. The objects of preparing a diagram are many. They effectively convey facts in pictures and highlight the more important features of the data. The facts and figures become alive and thus become clear to an average reader of the report, *e. g.*, facts concerning share of different factors of production in the turnover of a firm, sales figures of different years, comparative costs of production over different years and many other details lose their dryness and become interesting to the average reader. Besides, coloured diagrams add to the look of the report.

Advantages of diagrams. (*i*) Since they are simple and direct, they are *understood easily* by everyone, even by laymen and average users of the report. (*ii*) They create a *more lasting impression* on the minds of the users of the data as compared to the mass of cold tabulated facts. (*iii*) They have a *greater visual appeal* than the statistical tables. Thus they *attract immediate attention.* (*iv*) Due to their greater visual appeal and their power to create a more lasting impression, they are very *useful for publicity.* (*v*) It is the *busy executive* who benefits greatly because they give a bird's eye view of statistics collected and their interpretation.

Disadvantages of diagrams. (*i*) Diagrams *distort information.* They do not give a precise and accurate information. They give only an approximate idea about the data. (*ii*) They cannot analyse and present complex data. In fact this is their greatest weakness. (*iii*) Diagrams are *unable to present a varied data.*. Normally only a limited type of data can be presented with their help. (*iv*) An *optical illusion* is often created by diagrams resulting in many wrong notions. (*v*) An over-abundance of diagrams *distracts the attention* of the reader from the central issue of the report and important facts get blurred. (*vi*) Where diagrams have more than one dimension, they *create confusion.* For example, a picture of the size of the office may indicate the space of the office (in cubic metres) or the number of employees, etc.

Different types of diagrams. Diagrams and pictures are of many types. Various types are summarised as follows:

1. One-Dimensional or Bar Diagrams.
2. Two-Dimensional Diagrams.
3. Three-Dimensional Diagrams.
4. Pictograms and Cartograms.

1. *One-dimensional or bar diagrams.* They are common type of diagrams in which the length of bar indicates the size of the data.

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The bars may be thick or thin and they can be drawn vertically or horizontally. There are many kinds of bar diagrams: (*i*) *Simple bar diagrams.* In these diagrams bars of different lengths represent

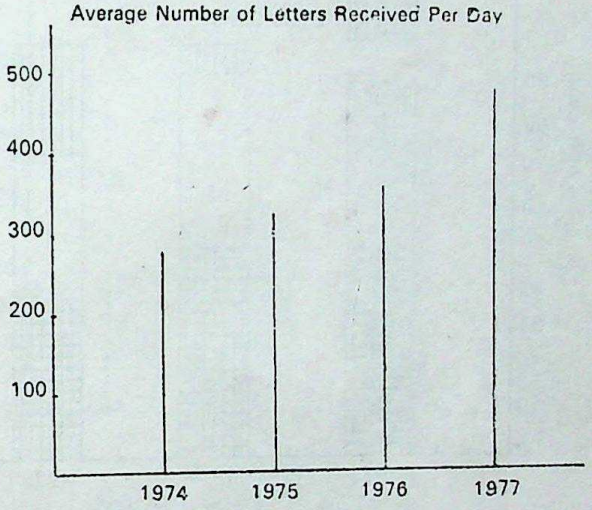

FIG. 24.1. Simple Bar Diagram.

particular item, *e.g.*, office productivity and so on. The length of each bar depends upon the size of the item (Fig. 24.1). (*ii*) *Multiple bar*

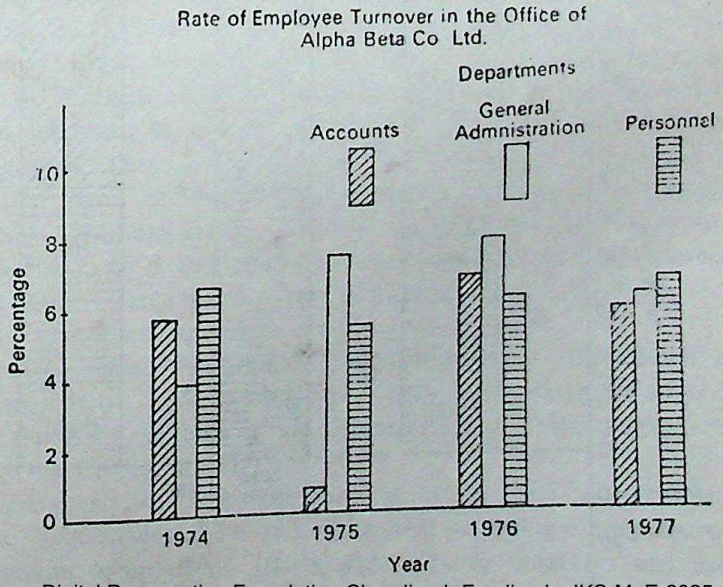

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FIG. 24.2 Multiple Bar Diagram.

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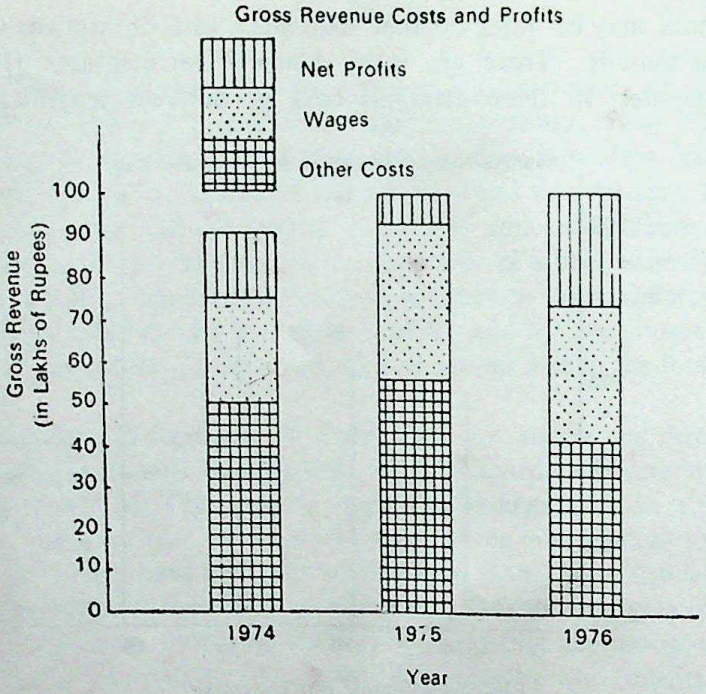

FIG 24.3. Sub-divided Bar Diagram.

Cost and Profit and Loss

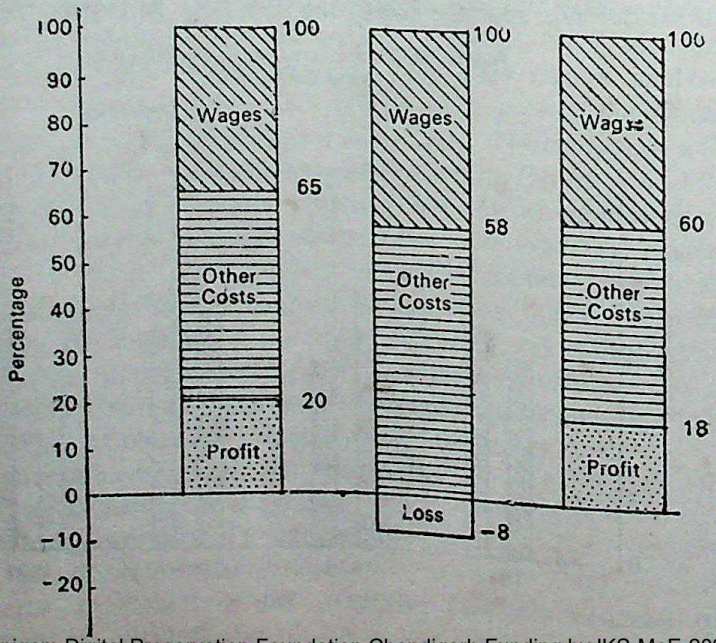

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FIG. 24.4. Percentage Bar Diagram.

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diagrams. Multiple bar diagrams are drawn where two or more sets of interrelated data are to be depicted. Lengths of bars is proportionate to the values of the variables depicted. Bars are drawn side by side

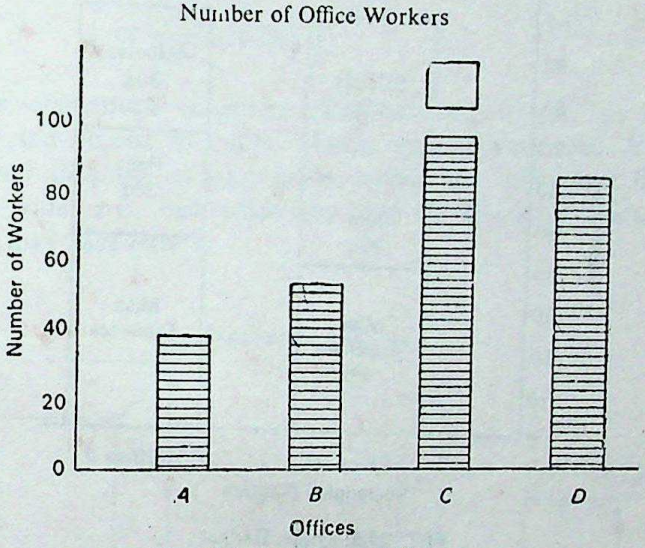

FIG. 24.5. Broken Bars Diagram.

for each variable. For bars depicting a particular variable similar colour, dots or lines, etc. are used. For example, sales and purchases may be shown with the help of multiple bars. Similarly rate of employee turnover, etc. can be shown with the help of multiple bars (Fig. 24.2). (*iii*) *Sub-divided bar diagrams.* Sub-divided bar diagrams are drawn to show various parts of a whole. Each bar is sub-divided to represent a part. Different parts of a bar are shaded or coloured differently to provide a contrast (Fig. 24.3). (*iv*) *Percentage bar diagrams.* They are similar to the sub-divided bar diagrams except that parts of the whole are shown in terms of percentages, *i.e.*, relative variations are depicted with their help. Fig. 24.4 (*v*) *Broken bars diagrams.* In some series there may be wide variations between different values—some may be very large while others may be very small. To save space, large bars are broken (Fig. 24.5).

2. *Two-dimensional diagrams.* These diagrams are also known as *area diagrams* or *surface diagrams.* In these diagrams the areas of the bars represent the data. These diagrams are: (*i*) Rectangles; (*ii*) Squares; (*iii*) Circles; and (*iv*) Pie.

(*i*) *Rectangles.* The rectangles may be constructed to represent figures or percentages. Often rectangles with percentages are constructed for making comparisons. (*ii*) *Squares.* Square diagrams are used in place of rectangle diagrams where the differences in different data

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wide and hence rectangles are difficult to construct. Again the areas

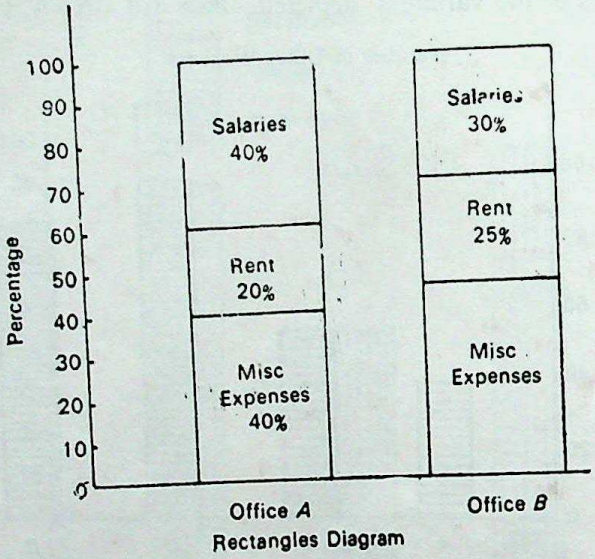

FIG. 24.6. Office Budget.

of respective squares are in proportion to the values they represent.

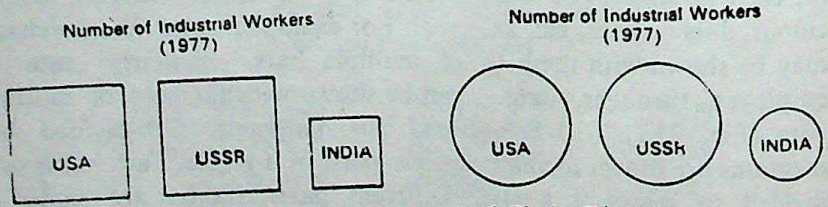

FIG. 24.7. Squares Diagram and Circles Diagram.

(*iii*) *Circles.* They can also be used to depict different data. The areas of circles are based on the size of the data they represent. Circles can be used in place of squares. (*iv*) *Pie diagrams.* Pie diagrams are circle diagrams in which a circle is divided into parts. Each part represents a percentage break-up of the relevant data. These diagrams are used commonly in various office reports. Since a circle has total angles of 360°, if measured from its centre,

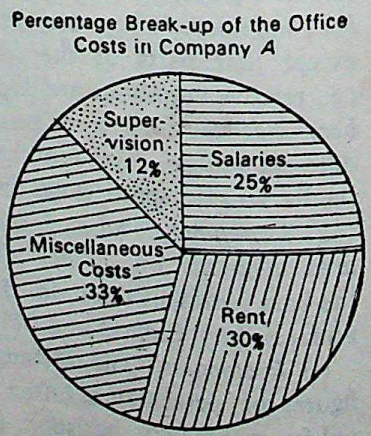

FIG. 24.8. Pie Diagram.

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sectoral divisions are made with reference to the centre. For example where wages represent 25% of the total, the wages would be represented by a sector having an angle of 90°

$$\left(\text{or } \frac{360°}{100\%} \times 25\% \right)$$

3. *Three-dimensional diagrams.* They are also known as *volume diagrams* and consist of cubes, blocks and cylinders, etc. A three-dimensional diagram is most useful where the differences in data are very wide, *e.g.*, one office may have 125 telephone lines, while the other may have only 8.

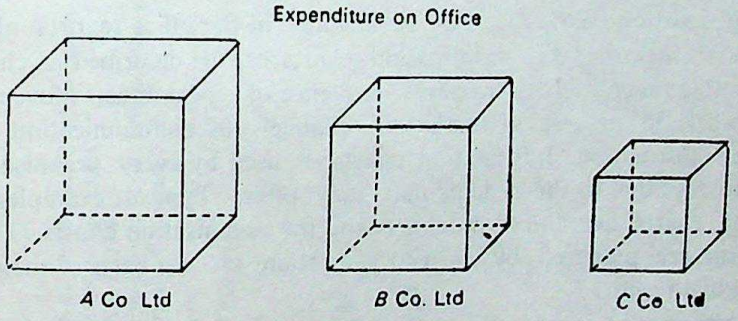

FIG. 24.9. Three-Dimensional Diagrams.

4. *Pictograms and cartograms* (*i*) *Pictograms.* Pictograms can be described as pictures representing different data. They are a very effective method of depicting data since pictures are more interesting than the dull and drab one-dimensional, two-dimensional or three-dimensional diagrams. These diagrams are used widely in the field of advertising and publicity. Pictograms have certain distinctive features which make them more useful than many other diagrams. They have attention value. They attract the attention of the reader or viewer immediately. Besides, they have a great memory value. Pictograms are generally bigger than the facts presented in tables or non-pictorial charts. However use of pictograms has its own limitations. They give an approximate idea, and thus exactness of detail is absent. They are difficult to construct. They also create an optical illusion where enlarged figures may misrepresent facts, *e.g.*, if a small figure of man represents 1,000 office employees in an office double this figure would represent 2,000 office employees in another office, which may be quite out of proportion to the strength. A better

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way would be to construct figures of men of similar size representing 1,000 employees.

(*ii*) *Cartograms.* As the name implies, cartograms are maps representing statistical data. Different colours, shades, lines, pictorial symbols and dots, etc., are used to depict different statistical facts. A key to these is provided in the cartogram. The relevant figures for each particular area within the map are indicated. Cartograms are used where geographic comparisons are to be made. Its visual appeal impresses the reader and creates a lasting impression. Statistical maps have one great limitation; they can be used only for geographic data and hence have a limited use.

Information Charts

Information charts may also be included in the office reports along with statistical data. Information charts can be described as charts depicting functional relationships, sequence of operations, movement of work in process or materials, channels of communication and other information. Information charts are used by every organisation these days due to the benefits that they offer. Typical examples of these charts are the flow charts and the organisation charts. These charts are prepared by each organisation on the basis of their individual needs.

Organisation chart.[1] Every organisation prepares its organisation chart to show particularly: (*i*) division of organisation into different departments; (*ii*) the relationship that exists between different departments; (*iii*) the relation that exists between different individuals showing line of authority; and (*iv*) in many cases a brief definition of the functions of different managers is given.

Advantages of preparing organisation chart. Preparation of organisation chart is useful in more than one way. Organisation chart clarifies the relationships of departments and hence helps in planning, coordinating and directing managerial actions. Organisation chart also defines the authority-responsibility relationships. This helps in achieving other management functions like delegating and communicating, etc. Organisation chart of a company is useful to the executives of the company. It is very useful for other companies as well. A well-managed company is a model for many other companies. These companies can certainly study the organisational pattern of the successful company with the help of its organisational chart.

(*See* Fig. 24.10 on p. 485 for illustration of an organisation chart)

[1] *See* chapter "Office Organisation" in the book.

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Fig. 24.10. A Typical Organisation along Functional Lines.

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Drawbacks of organisation charts. Although organisation charts are useful in more than one way, yet they have their drawbacks, *e.g.*, the chart depicts only the formal relationships. It is the informal relationship that may really account for the success of a company. Thus organisation charts may be a mechanistic way of looking at a formal organisation without taking into account the human material that completes the organisational processes.

Flow chart.[1] It is known by a number of other names like "work chart", "process chart", "procedure chart," "graphic routine chart", "Operation chart" and so on. This chart depicts movement of information, sequence of operations, or flow of materials in process. Such a chart (or diagram) is prepared to indicate the steps needed to complete a routine operation, or the quantity of work that passes through different stages, or the stages through which a particular work

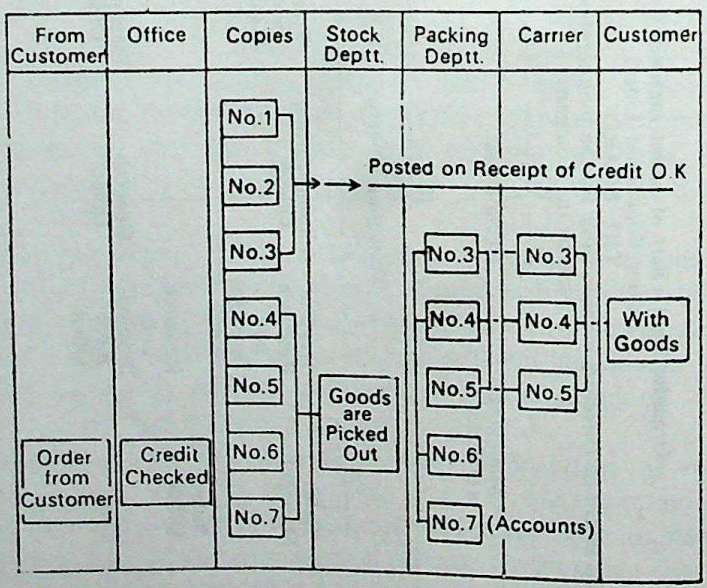

FIG. 24.11. Procedure Flow Chart, Showing the History of a Customer's Order.

passes. The "process charts" are very useful in controlling operations vis-a-vis, volume, space and time.

Control charts. A control chart is prepared to control operations in an organisation. Thus there can be a variety of control charts each of which may show the result of particular activity or operation, *e.g.*, cost of a product, profit of a department, quality of output

[1]Refer to "Process Charts" elsewhere in the book.

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and size of output, etc. Actual performance is noted against the planned or projected performance in each sphere. Control charts can be prepared in a number of ways, more common of which are the line charts and graphs.

Graphs or Graphic Presentation

A graph can be broadly defined as the depiction of inter-related data on a graph paper. Thus a graphic presentation is a tool through which relationships between different factors or variables are presented, *e.g.*, the revenue and profits, wages and productivity, social security measures and their impact, input-output analysis, etc. Both the types of data, *viz.*, the time data and the frequency distribution, can be plotted on the graph paper and they are joined or form curves or lines for a visual appraisal of the inter-related facts. Hence the name *line chart* is also used.

The method of plotting points on the graph paper is very simple. Two lines are drawn on a graph paper intersecting each other at right angles. The point of intersection is known as the "*zero (0) point*" or "*point of origin*". The four parts $\left(\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 2 \\ \hline 3 & 4 \end{array}\right)$ so obtained are called quadrants. The horizontal line is known as *X*-axis while the vertical line is known as *Y*-axis. It is a standard practice to take the independent variable (*e. g.*, time) along the horizontal line or the *X*-axis and the dependent variable along the vertical line or the *X*-axis (*e. g.*, output, purchases, profits, sales, dividends, etc.). To represent the units of data on the graph paper, it is necessary to choose a suitable measuring scale.

Types of scales for graphs. There are two alternative types of scales which can be used to construct a graph:

(*i*) *Arithmetic or natural scale.* Where the arithmetic scale is used equal differences are measured in terms of equal distances on the scale. The scale is simple both to implement and understand. Besides, it is very useful in studying absolute variations in the values of variables.

(*ii*) *Semi-logarithmic or ratio scale.* Under this scale, equal proportional changes are measured by differences in the scale. Such a semi-logarithmic graph is also called the *ratio chart.* Such a ratio chart is excellent to measure relative changes in the values of variables. Ratio chart can be prepared in one of the following ways: (*a*) the given values are plotted on a graph paper of which the vertical scale is prepared on the ratio principle, or (*b*) the logarithms of the values of variables are poltted on a natural scale.

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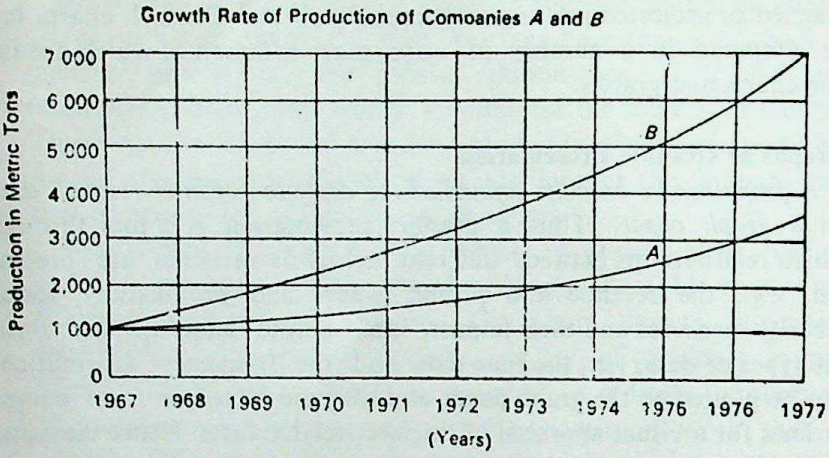

FIG. 24.12. Graphical Presentation—Arithmetic Scale.

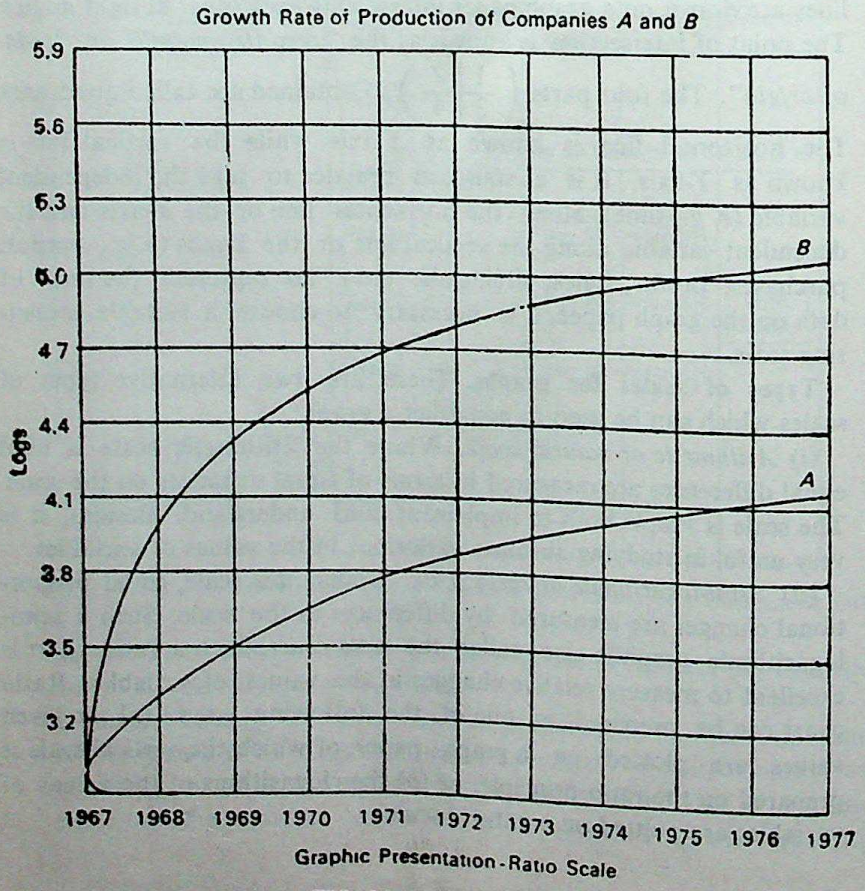

FIG. 24.13. Ratio Chart.

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Zee-chart or Z-Chart. The zee-chart is prepared for the time data for showing (*a*) figures for a week, month or quarter; (*b*) cumulative totals of the data for the periods; (*c*) moving yearly totals of the figures. In this way three lines are obtained which show like the letter Z of the alphabet and hence the name Z-chart. The lines are drawn in this order. At the bottom of the graph is the line representing the original data. This is called *original data curve.* Above the original data curve is drawn the curve for cumulative totals of figures for the periods. On the top is drawn the line representing the moving annual totals of the data. These three curves look like Z.

Advantages of line charts or graphs. Their advantages are summarised as follow: (*i*) Graphs are fit for making comparisons between the values of two or more variables. They indicate the relative changes in values. (*ii*) The relative changes in time series are best depicted with the help of graphs. (*iii*) They can be prepared with great ease. Besides, they are very simple to understand. (*iv*) Many types of information can be shown on the graph. (*v*) Since graphs indicate the trends and

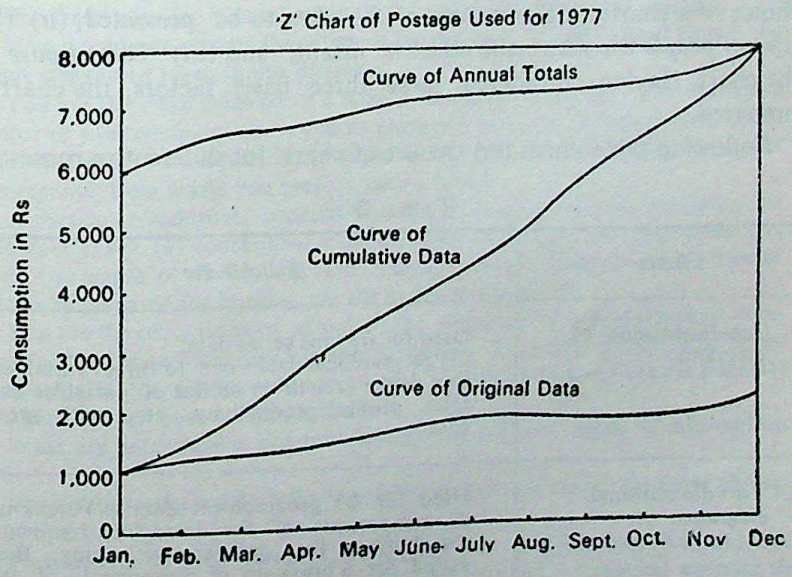

FIG. 24.14. Z-chart.

movements of values of items, forecasting can be done with their help with ease and fair amount of accuracy. (*iv*) Values of items can be interpreted quickly with the help of graphs. (*vii*) Many statistical measures, like the median, quartiles, deciles, percentiles and mode,

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etc., can be determined accurately without actual mathematical computations.

Drawbacks of graphs. Although graphs are a very useful device used in the preparation of the report and presentation of statistical data in general, yet they have their own drawbacks, chief of which are as follows: (*i*) Preparation of graphs calls for a good skill to depict complex information and statistical measures. (*ii*) Visual appeal of the graphs is much less than the visual appeal of the diagrams. Thus the graphs may not prove useful since they may have lesser memorising value. (*iii*) Graphs can be best studied and interpreted by people who are familiar with the statistical tools or methods. Thus to that extent their utility for the layman is less. (*iv*) They cannot replace statistical tools to do a comprehensive study.

Factors affecting Choice of Suitable Presentation

Suitable choice of a diagram or graph is basic to its effectiveness. It is, therefore, necessary to choose the most suitable diagram or graph to present the data for the report. Following factors influence the choice of a chart: (*i*) The *nature of the data* to be presented; (*ii*) The *type of people* for which the chart is meant; and (*iii*) The *purpose* of the chart. Having considered these three basic factors, the chart is prepared.

Following table illustrates the use of charts for different purposes:

TABLE 24.2

Charts	*Suitable For*
1. One-dimensional bar diagrams.	Used for (*i*) time series data; (*ii*) geographical data—one to three variables. Can depict growth or decline of variables like sales, profits, productivity, etc., with great ease.
2. Two-dimensional diagrams.	Used for (*i*) geographical data; (*ii*) break-up of components of the data; (*iii*) frequency distributions for comparative study. Best suited for a break-up of components of the data, *e.g.*, break-up of revenue component for Directors' Report.
3. Three-dimensional diagrams.	Used for (*i*) a comparative assessment of geographical data; (*ii*) Comparative evaluation of frequency distribution. Best suited to depict comparative sizes of markets, incomes, productivity, etc. of nations, firms and; industries.

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Charts	*Suitable For*
4. Pictograms and Cartograms.	Used for comparing (usually) the comparative sizes of a given variable, *e.g.*, food production, number of cows, quantity of rainfall, etc. Best suited where the reader is casual and some kind of interest is to be stimulated.
5. Graphs.	Used for showing (*i*) time series data; (*ii*) many kinds of facts; (*iii*) comparative data. Best suited for readers who are better acquainted with the tools of statistical analysis.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the need for statistical data in the office? Discuss the different phases in data collection.

2. Which method of collecting data would you employ regarding work-output of employees in a large office and why?

3. The Managing Director of your company wants you to find out the reaction to a new credit plan for the customers. How would you assess this reaction?

4. How would you classify the salary of employees in a large office? Detail the various steps to be taken in this direction.

5. You are the office manager of a large joint-sector company. The Managing Director of your company wants you to prepare a suitable statistical table showing how the office staff requirements have increased due to a vast expansion of the company? How would you prepare such a table?

6. A particular industrial concern has the following information about the employees: (*i*) age, (*ii*) educational level, (*iii*) type of work done, (*iv*) family size, (*v*) pay, (*vi*) length of service, and (*vii*) marital status. Indicate the nature of tables to be prepared for bringing out the above information.

7. You are the office manager as well as the secretary of a medium-sized company. The Chairman wants you to prepare suitable diagrams, graphs, and tables for inclusion in the Chairman's speech and Directors' Report for the financial year which has just ended. Prepare them.

8. What are information charts? Discuss the different types of information charts.

9. Write short notes on the following: (*a*) Organisation chart; (*b*) Flow charts; and (*c*) Control charts.

10. Productivity in your office, of which you are the Director (Admin.), has been declining. You feel that it is essential to carry out a statistical exercise to ascertain the causes. How would you go about your task?

11. You are the Executive Officer of the Systems Department of a large multi-branch international. You have been assigned the responsibility to check on the success of the inter-communication system. State which method of sampling would you employ for the purpose.

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12. You are the Systems Analyst and Programmer of a large company owning a number of large factories in different industries in India and abroad. Prepare a comprehensive illustrative report about use of the central computer by different departments and units.

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Chapter 25

OFFICE PERSONNEL—I

MEANING OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

LABOUR is the only dynamic factor of production. Other factors of production are useless and idle. The human element in production occupies a role of great importance. In order to manage industrial enterprises effective means are to be found. This is the Personnel Function. 'Personnel Management', therefore, has come to occupy a position of great importance in management studies. Brech calls it as the nervous system of organisation. He describes it as "the part of the management process which is primarily concerned with the human constituents of an organisation."[1] Flippo gives a functional definition. He states, "Personnel Management is the planning, organizing, controlling of the procurement, development, compensation, integration, and maintenance of people for the purpose of contributing to organisational, individual and societal goals."

APPROACHES TO LABOUR

Mechanical Approach to Labour[2]

Basic approach to labour in our country, by and large, remains mechanical. This mechanical approach to labour takes labour, whether in the factory or the office, to be a commodity to be bought in the market like any other commodity. This approach is called the "commodity approach" or the "factor-of-production concept." This approach takes care of the physical side of labour and thus creates numerous problems in the field of personnel management.

Human Relations Approach to Labour

The above approach has to be modified, nay changed, in the light

[1]Brech, *E.F.L. (Ed.), Principles of Management, Longmans, 437.*

[2]Flippo, Edwin B., *Principles of Personnel Management*. 4th Edn., McGraw-Hill, 1976.

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of today's philosophy. A man cannot live by bread alone. Thus there is need for taking into account the psychological requirements of man-power. Worker is not a machine. He is composed of impulses and emotions which affect his behaviour and effort. The repetitive nature of work in modern office and increasing mechanisation make for dullness and the worker gets exhausted, mentally as well as physically, and starts taking less interest in his work. The worker's interest in his job becomes even less if his employer adopts a mechanical approach towards him and treats him as a commodity and not as a throbbing human heart. All these factors combine to lower productivity of office worker and bring about the existence of an ill-adjusted worker. The worker wants to be treated not as a machine but as a centre of instincts. Instincts generate all thought and action. In all spheres of life a man needs satisfaction of instincts like love, hatred, fear, anger and pride, etc. Satisfaction of these instincts in a proper way contributes to greater productivity. Recognition is basic to personal satisfaction. The mere recognition fills a worker with pride and attaches him to the goals of the enterprise. In other words, the tasks of the satisfied worker get identified with the objectives of the organisation.

FUNCTIONS OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

There are two broad categories of functions of personnel management:

(*a*) Management functions.

(*b*) Operative functions.

Management Functions

They are as follows:

1. **Planning**
2. **Organisation**
3. **Directing**
4. **Controlling**

The above functions are described in Chapter 2 of the book.

Operative Functions

They are discussed as follows:

1. Procurement. This is the first of the operative functions. It is concerned with the obtaining of the proper kind and number of personnel necessary to accomplish necessary organisation goals. The function is related to subjects like the determination of manpower requirements and their recruitment, selection and placement. The

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manpower requirements are calculated in terms of numbers of personnel needed and their quality. Selection and placement cover different activities designed to screen and hire personnel, such as application forms, psychological tests, interviews and induction.

2. Development. After the personnel have been obtained, it is necessary to develop them. Development implies the increase of skill, through training, that is necessary for proper job performance. This aspect of personnel function has acquired great importance even in our country during the last quarter of a century or so due to greater use of technology in every department of a business enterprise. Development function will be influenced by numerous factors, like induction of new machines, promotions and transfers.

3. Compensation. This function can be defined as the adequate and equitable remuneration of personnel for their contributions to organisation objectives. In developed countries, compensation cannot be described as a great motivating force as strong as it is in less developed countries. Compensating remains one of the basic functions of personnel management. A proper wage system takes into consideration a number of factors and subjects like job evaluation, wage policies, wage systems and wage incentive schemes.

4. Integration. It can be defined as an attempt to effect a reasonable reconciliation of individual and organisational interests. Integration must follow the above three functions of procurement, development and compensation. The function of integration relates to problems of communication, informal organisation and trade unions.

5. Maintenance. Maintenance refers to sustaining and improving the conditions that have been established. This would thus include the above functions. However, it must be pointed out that it would be necessary to take care of physical well-being and mental well-being of the employees. In order to accomplish this objective, it would be desirable that research must continue in every direction so that the function of maintenance is performed properly.

SETTING UP THE PERSONNEL DEPARTMENT

Personnel function is a very important function of personnel management. It is therefore necessary that it should be carried out properly. In order to do this, it is necessary that personnel department be organised on sound lines.

Process of Organizing a Personnel Department

Following procedure may be followed in organising a personnel

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department:

1. Stating objectives. State clearly the goals and objectives of the personnel programmes. It would be better to put them on paper in writing.

2. Defining personnel policies. Define the right type of personnel policies in the light of the goals and objectives.

3. Defining status of personnel manager. The status of the personnel manager in the organisation structure must be determined carefully.

4. Delegating. Delegation of duties to the personnel department must take place with reference to the functions entrusted to it.

5. Developing sound systems. Sound systems are to be developed with reference to the following:

(*i*) Recruitment and maintenance of personnel in different departments.

(*ii*) Proper training of employees at different levels.

(*iii*) Provision of employee services and welfare amenities.

(*iv*) Provision of adequate health and safety measures.

(*v*) Maintenance of records of employees, data and research findings on various aspects of the personnel function.

Rigidity versus Flexibility

The changing environments are to be matched with the change in the organisational structuring. Flippo[1] points out that in the USA, on an average, such changes are effected once every two years. In our country, the business dynamics are small in size and range because of the economic situation. All the same it would be desirable to effect necessary organisational changes in firms in our country. The personnel department should, therefore, be re-organised to reflect the changing circumstances.

Chief Executive and the Personnel Department

Since personnel function is related directly to human beings whose efficiency (or inefficiency) affects the fortunes of the enterprise, it is necessary that the top administration should take proper interest in it. The Chief Executive should keep himself in close touch with the personnel department. He should initiate suitable measures when productivity starts falling or there is unrest and turnover in the office.

[1]Flippo, *op. cit.*

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RECRUITMENT OF STAFF

Need for Proper Recruitment

Recruitment of office staff has to be done with great care because the efficiency of an organisation depends much upon the efficiency of the office. Need for proper recruitment arises because of the following *reasons*:

1. Greater productivity. If the recruitment is scientific, the productivity increases.

2. Better wages for workers. As the productivity is good, the workers also get the benefit of better wages.

3. Better morale. Since the recruitment is scientific, the morale of work-force is better.

4. Lower labour turnover. Better job adjustment, due to scientific recruitment, leads to lower rate of labour turnover. Turnover is not only costly but it also dislocates work.

5. Better public image. Due to above factors, an organisation employing scientific recruitment techniques enjoys better reputation among the public.

Stages of Recruitment

After having determined the need for more staff or replacements, the process of recruitment would take place which passes through the following different stages: (*i*) Location of the candidates for different positions to be filled up. (*ii*) Interviewing the more promising of the applicants. (*iii*) Final selection and induction.

Let us discuss these various aspects.

Job Analysis

Before recruitment takes place, the Office Manager must have accurate information about different jobs and decide what qualifications and qualities he would like the new staff to possess. The necessary information can be obtained through *job analysis, job description* and *job specification.*

"*Job analysis* is the process of studying and collecting information relating to the operations and responsibilities of the specific job." Job analysis is based on job description, job specification and job classification.

Job Analysis Process. Once a job has been designed, analysing a job is essentially a process of data collection. There are four main *approaches* which can be used in studying a job, which are: 1. *Questionnaires;* 2. *Written narratives;* 3. *Observations;* and

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4. *Interviews.* Of these methods, interview method is the most popular in the industrially advanced countries.[1]

The third and fourth methods of collecting information are perhaps the best due to completeness, accuracy and better utilisation of time. In most cases the ideal method would be to combine the two methods of interview and observation. Where jobs are simple and repetitive (as most office jobs are) observation method is effective; and the interview method would provide information which cannot be readily observed plus the verification of information obtained by means of other techniques.

Using interview method. Since interview method is the most commonly used method of data collection, it must be used in a way that the best results are obtained. To obtain the best results, the following points should be noted:

1. The job analyst should be properly *introduced* to the worker. He should take the help of the supervisor. He should play down his ego and not boss over the worker or the supervisor.

2. The job analyst should *show a sincere interest* in the employee and the job that he is analysing.

3. The job analyst *should not tell the employee how to do the job* since the employee is an expert on his job and the analyst's work is to extract information and organise it in a significant manner.

4. The employees and supervisors *should be talked to in the language which they follow easily.*

5. *The job should not be confused with the worker*—the two are separate.

6. The *job study should be undertaken within the objectives of the programme.* It must be remembered that job analysis is not motion study and there is no need to obtain a "blow-by-blow" account of an operation.

7. The *data obtained from one employee must be verified by* consulting other employee(s) doing similar job.

Job description. A natural outcome of the job analysis process is job description. It can be defined as "*an organised, factual statement of the duties and responsibilities of a specific job.*" A few important points which must be kept in mind, while writing job descriptions, are outlined below:

[1]In a survey of 899 firms in the USA and employing between 500 and 1,00,000 workers each, the Interview method was used by 85% of the firms. The next was the observation method. The other two methods had the same popularity ranking. (Flippo, *op. cit.*)

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1. Every worker tends to make his job look big. This *subjectivity* must be eliminated.

2. Job description must be *simple, frank, and uniform.*

3. *Duties* and tasks must be listed and should indicate which are more important and are performed more frequently.

4. How *duties are inter-related* within a single job or over different allied jobs?

5. What additional *training* is necessary to upgrade performance on the job?

6. The employees must understand that job descriptions shall not affect their *pay or promotion.*

Job specification. Job specification is "a statement of the minimum acceptable human qualities necessary to perform a job properly." Job specifications tell what education is required or what special machines or equipment shall be needed for the purpose. A few important points in this regard are worth-noting:

1. It is unwise to fix unduly high *standards of formal education* for routine jobs. An overly qualified person is a disgruntled infection.

2. Job specification must take into account *standards laid down by law* for formal education.

3. *Job specifications must be based on facts* obtained through various methods of job analysis, and not merely on expectations or whims.

Practice of Job Analysis

In our country, job analysis has not been assigned the role that is its due, especially in the office. Many of the figures of manpower requirements are not based on any scientific and deliberate calculation but are based on expediency or the rule of thumb. This is especially true of the Government departments and Government undertakings which employ the largest number of clerical workers in the country. This is so because labour is very cheap. It is becoming increasingly important to carry out job analysis in all types of offices to have accurate and economical manpower planning.

Calculating the Number of Personnel

Number of Personnel needed is calculated on the basis of the following:

1. Analysis of the work-load. Work-load analysis deals with such problems as forecasting sales, scheduling work, and determining employee requirements per unit of output. The result of this analysis would lead to an establishment of a number of workers required for

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a certain work, whether in the office or factory.

2. Analysis of the work-force. Work-force analysis helps in assessing the effects of absences, terminations and retirements, etc., on the total requirements for work-force.

Job Grading

The processes of job analysis and job description are to be followed by job grading or job classification. Job classification (or grading) is a grouping of jobs on some specified basis, such as kind or work or pay.

There can be numerous job grades depending upon the policy of the organisation or the types of jobs. The Institute of Administrative Management of the UK lists the following six grades:[1]

Grade A. Simple tasks allotted to be done under close supervision.

Grade B. Simple copying and making of entries from original documents and these tasks require the knowledge of a few well-defined rules. They are simple operations requiring manual dexterity. The responsibility is small. The work is checked and supervised closely.

Grade C. The work is of routine nature but the responsibility is somewhat greater than Grade B. Checking of Grade B work.

Grade D. Work demands some initiative. Daily routine varies. Little supervision is needed.

Grade E. More important clerical work with a degree of control over the sequence of jobs or over the work of small groups of staff. Work demands special knowledge or involves individual responsibility without supervision.

Grade F. Supervision of sections and responsibility for the efficient execution of a complete division of work; has to be in constant touch with the management and administration. Work demands specialised knowledge, discretion and judgment, for example, legal, accounting, engineering and statistical.

Sources of Recruitment

After having determined the number of employees required the next step would be to determine the source of recruitment. Broadly speaking, there are *two categories of sources*: (*i*) external sources: and (*ii*) internal sources.

Internal sources. Internal sources make use of the promotional policy and thus they have a limited use. Where an additional number

[1]Denyer, *op. cit.*

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is to be recruited, it must come from outside sources.

External sources. They are stated as below:

1. *Advertising.* It is one of the major sources of recruitment for large firms. An advertisement is put in a newspaper, magazine or professional journal for seeking suitable candidates.

2. *Selection through old employees or recommendation of present employees.* This can be described as the major source of recruitment. In fact, as Flippo[1] cites surveys in the USA, it is the most important single source of recruitment outweighing all other sources combined In our country too, this can be considered as the single most important source of recruitment. Old employees with long and devoted service are able to make recommendations and usually the employers accept their recommendations.

3. *Government exchanges.* A demand is put to the employment exchange stating the various jobs.

4. *Office appliance companies.* Some of the office appliance manufacturers supplying specialised kinds of machines and equipment are approached for personnel to man them.

5. *Labour unions.* Unions may also be approached for the purpose of recruitment of staff.

6. *Casual applicants.* Many a time board listing vacancies (including those in the office) is hung on the factory gate.

7. *Schools, colleges and specialised institutes.* They may also be approached, for example, if a cost accountant is needed the Institute of Costs and Works Accountants may be approached.

8. *Nepotism, i.e.,* in family-owned businesses family links are considered and merit is not considered. The owner may recruit as he likes.

9. *Management consultants.* They are becoming an important source for the recruitment of office staff, especially executives.

Recruitment Procedure

The following recruitment procedure is suggested for office employees:

1. Employee requisition. The formal process of recruitment should begin with the requisition specifying the job titles, grades, etc. of the personnel needed. This requisition must be initiated by the supervisor/executive/manager who is authorised on the basis of the authority enjoined upon him in the office or the organisation. Employee requisitions must be made well in advance due to the following main reasons: (*i*) The personnel department is intimated so that the selection process

[1]Flippo, *op. cit.*

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for a particular job is initiated. (*ii*) Budget provision is made for the job. (*iii*) Other provision for the maintenance of job is made, *e.g.*, provision of work space, etc.

2. Preliminary screening of applications. Once the applications have been received, it would be better to have a preliminary screening of these applications. Where the number of applications is very large, it would be better to call for more detailed information from a smaller number so as to select the requisite number for testing and interviewing. In certain areas, the number of applicants is bound to be small. In such cases it would be better to ask for detailed information from all the applicants.

Most progressive offices today supply application blanks to a smaller number after comparing the suitability of applicants with job specification, etc. This certainly puts lesser pressure on the organisational effort and information system.

3. Testing. Testing is a sample of performance. Testing is essential to measure the mental and psychological efforts of the individual. Thus proper testing helps to recruit the right type of individual and helps in correct placement. It also reduces employee turnover, which has its costs.

Principles of Testing. Testing must be scientific and systematic so as to achieve its objective of recruitment of the right man. Following principles of testing should be adhered to for the purpose: (*i*) Tests must be selected or designed on the basis of a sound *job analysis* programme. (*ii*) The test designed should be *reliable*, *i.e.*, there should be consistency in the results obtained. (*iii*) Tests should possess the characteristic of *validity*, *i.e.*, if the objective of the job should coincide with the objective of testing. (*iv*) As far as possible, tests should be *standardised* so that the results of different candidates are comparable. (*v*) Tests should not be regarded as the only *means* of the recruitment process.

Types of testing. Following types of testing can be done:

A. General testing. Most of the Government offices, banks and the insurance corporations have general tests for their clerical workers which test the workers for language, simple arithmetic and general knowledge. Where the number of vacancies is large and the number of applicants is large, these tests help to reduce the work involved in final testing and selection.

B. Occupational testing. The knowledge of the candidate is to be tested through an occupational test. For example, a Duplicating Machine Operator might be required to work on the same; a general clerk may be given a test in language and office procedures and so on.

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C. Psychological testing. Psychological testing may also be done to determine the aptitude and behaviour of candidates under varying conditions. Psychological tests are of the following *types*:

(*i*) *Intelligence tests* which measure the capacity of a person to grasp.

(*ii*) *Aptitude tests* measure the aptitude and capacity of the candidates to learn their jobs.

(*iii*) *Achievement tests* help to measure the level of proficiency attained by an individual.

(*iv*) *Interest tests* help to determine the preferences of candidates for different types of jobs.

(*v*) *Personality tests* aim at judging the temperamental qualities and emotional balance of a person.

4. Interviewing. In modern testing systems for selection, interviewing can be described as the final stage of testing for recruitment so far as job qualifications and suitability go. Those who come through the above different types of tests, they are usually interviewed. For some simple jobs, the above tests are not needed. Thus in such cases only interview technique is used to assess the capacity of a probable recruit. Interviewing is the task of assessing a person's capacity to take up a defined job by having face-to-face presence. Following factors regarding interviewing should be considered by management:

Types of interviews. From the employment point of view interviews can be of *two* main types: (*i*) The *guided* (or directed or patterned) interviews, and (*ii*) The *unguided* (or nondirected or unpatterned) interviews.

The *guided interview* is one which is planned well in advance—the list of questions to be put, the time to be spent on interview, etc., are all thought out in advance. The *unguided interview* is largely unplanned. In order to get the best results, the interview should be guided for the average clerical worker, while unguided interview can be used for higher executive posts.

Principles of interviewing. It is essential to get the best out of the interview process. This can be achieved only if interviewing is based on certain fundamentals or principles, which are related to sequence of functions that occur within the interview: (*a*) preparation; (*b*) setting; (*c*) conduct of the interview; (*d*) close; and (*e*) evaluation.

Following is the summary of principles relating to each of these steps.

Preparation. Well-planned interview achieves the objective for which it is intended. Following principles should be adopted for preparation of the interview:

(*a*) **Specific objectives should be determined for the interview.** This

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is essential to obtain the information needed.

(*ii*) *Method of achieving* the interview objectives should be determined, *e.g.*, should written notes be made or not.

(*iii*) *Maximum information about the interviewee* should be obtained. This can be done by reading the application and the biodata.

Setting. Although setting is not a separate step in the interviewing process, yet it deserves special attention. The setting is of *two* types—physical and mental—and the principles involved are:

(*i*) The physical setting should be both *comfortable and private.* Comfort is necessary so that the interviewee feels at ease and thus gives out his best. Privacy is essential so that the interview is free from tension and gives a feeling of due importance to the interviewee.

(*ii*) The mental setting should aim at establishing a *rapport* between the interviewer and the interviewee.

Conduct of the interview. This can be described as the most crucial stage when information is obtained and facts are supplied. Following are its important principles:

(*i*) The interviewer should possess and display a basic *liking and respect for people.* It is only in this way that the interviewees open up.

(*ii*) The interviewee should be encouraged to talk by putting proper and tactful *questions.*

(*iii*) The interveiwer should do attentive *listening* and try to project (mentally) himself as the interviewee.

Close. The interview should be closed aptly and to do so the following principles may be observed:

(*i*) The interviewer should make some kind of *sign* to indicate the end of the interview so that the interviewee is not embarrassed and makes a comfortable exit.

(*ii*) The interviewee should be given some kind of definite hint about future action, *i.e.*, whether the person is selected or not, although the communication of rejection is a very difficult task. Rejection may be communicated through post.

Evaluation. Evaluation is a very important and difficult task. As soon as the candidate has caused exit, evaluation must be completed because the details are still fresh in the mind of the interviewer.

Another fact to be considered at this stage is the interviewer himself. It is for him/her to evaluate his/her own performance at the art and practice of interviewing people. The interviewer must refuse to act as a power-seeker and should not find only faults in others nor should ignore their disabilities. A sense of proportion, sound judgment, maturity and stability are some of the qualities that interviewer must possess.

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5. Medical testing. Physical requirements of various jobs differ. A candidate must be physically fit to take up the strains of a job. Persons found unfit medically should not be recruited.

6. On-the-job testing. Certain types of jobs require special skills. In such cases, it would be better that the candidate is put on a trial for some period. The length of the period is to be determined with reference to the grading of job. This period is called *probationary period.* If the work of the *probationer* is not found satisfactory he should not be selected at all

7. Contract of employment. A contract of employment must be drawn setting forth the terms and conditions of employment. Quite often the terms and conditions are put in the letter of appointment issued to an incumbent.

INDUCTION

All progressive organisations today have started realising the importance of induction, especially in a large organisation where things are impersonal at the firm level and people are working in large groups. Induction can be described as the process of introducing the employee to the organisation and the work processes. Induction has been described as the "*fusion process*" by which the individual identifies himself with the organisation and tries to achieve his goals with the agency of the organisation.

The induction must be well-planned and should not be a one-day affair. The employee must be introduced to the supervisor, his co-workers and the job. It is also essential to set apart a suitable working place for the new employee before he joins in his job. A *planned induction* offers the following benefits:

(*i*) It creates *favourable attitude* in the mind of the employee and this improves his morale and performance.

(*ii*) It *aids learning* and also saves time and trouble since the employee knows which is his job and what is expected of him.

(*iii*) It *gives accurate information* to the employee who may otherwise finds it difficult to get or may get from disgruntled employees.

(*iv*) It *reduces the rate of employee turnover* since many new employees may be introverts who may find it difficult to seek knowledge and acquaintance on their own.

Follow-up

Induction should be supplemented with adequate and *planned Follow-up.* This process is to be followed with the help of the super-

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visor. The supervisor should take every opportunity to be helpful and at the same time critically (not rudely) evaluate the new entrant's performance and politely point out the ways and means to improve it. It would be better if the employee and the supervisor mutually agree on a time schedule to reach a certain minimum standard of performance. Besides, it would be in the interest of the employer as well as maintenance of good human relations to make the employee feel that he is capable of performing the standards set and smoothly cross the probation period.

JOB EVALUATION

Job evaluation and performance appraisal or merit rating are inter-related subjects. Performance appraisal provides the basis on which wages of each worker can be fixed. But before merit-rating is done, it would be essential to fix the basic wage rates for different types of workers in the organisation. If the basic wage rates are determined casually by the organisation, it may lead to labour trouble. On the other hand, where such wages are fixed under pressure from labour union, the organisation may suffer loss. Hence there is a need for a correct and scientific way of assessing the contents of each job and the demands the job makes on a worker. This assessment is called job evaluation. Brech defines job evaluation as "methods of determining the relative worth of jobs on some scale usually by an analysis of the content of jobs under classified headings." A study of the ILO states thus: "Job evaluation may be defined as an attempt to determine and compare the demands which the normal performance of the individual abilities or performance of the workers concerned." Thus *job evaluation is a systematic and orderly process of determining the worth of job in relation to other jobs.*

Thus the *basic purpose of job evaluation* is to determine the relative worth of each job so that proper remuneration can be fixed for different categories of jobs. Proper job evaluation helps in devising a wage struture which is acceptable to the workers as well as the organisation.

Job Evaluation Systems

Following are the four principal systems of job evaluation.

1. **Ranking system.** Under this system each job is not broken into factors but each job is ranked among all others. A hierarchy for each job group is outlined and pay-scales are determined. The system is useful in a small organisation where jobs are few and they are known to the raters.

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2. Job classification system. The system begins with an overall view of job as a basis for identification of major wage and salary classes. For each class, a general specification is prepared, indicating the types of responsibilities and work that may be included. Salary ranges are then fixed for each class or sub-class. All jobs are thereafter fitted into these predetermined classes. The system is best suited to small organisations, since in large organisations job specifications are quite complicated.

3. Point system. Under this system each degree of each factor is to be measured. The system makes use of a manual which outlines elements or factors upon which each job is to be rated and prescribes the weighting to be applied to each such element. The system has the advantage of forcing job raters to consider individual factors and thus have proper job evaluation. However, the system is not flexible and weights may be fixed arbitrarily rendering the system unscientific as well.

4. Factor-comparison system. This system is perhaps the best. First of all, job elements or factors are chosen which are common to different jobs, and weights are assigned to each job element by analysing how each element contributes to the job. In course of evaluations, all jobs are appraised and assigned a value on each element or factor. On the basis of weights, the total value of each job becomes available. Although the system is complicated and expensive, yet it gives proper job evaluation.

Factors of Job Evaluation

There are many factors that influence the value of each job; and job evaluation measures the value of each of these factors. Whatever be the methods of job evaluation used in an organisation, the following factors must be considered:

1. *Effort.* Physical and mental.
2. *Skill.* Manual, mental and social.
3. *Working conditions and environments.* Monotony, noise and risks.
4. *Responsibility.* For work of others and property.

Usefulness of Job Evaluation

Job evaluation offers numerous advantages, more important of which are as follows:

1. Forming rational salary structure. Proper and rational salary and wage structure can be formulated and implemented which will be better than the arbitrary and casual methods of fixing salaries and wages.

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2. Help in merit rating, etc. Job analysis helps in merit rating, proper selection and training, simplification of work, improvement in conditions of work, adequate control of labour and incentive pay for the workers.

3. Easy settlement of disputes. Settlement of grievances and disputes regarding individual wage rates is greatly facilitated.

4. Easy review of wages. Wage rates can be reviewed with ease. Whenever a change in the operations or duties takes place due to innovations in technology, or change in work method the job evaluation machinery evolved by the organisation will go into action and help in changing the wage structure.

5. Simplification of wage administration. Job evaluation also allows for simplification of wage administration because it brings about uniformity in wage rates. Where job evaluation is used throughout an industry or a region, it would help in making comparisons of wage structures between different units in the same location or at different locations.

6. Ensures uniform standards. Job evaluation helps in evolving uniform standards to be applied to all jobs in the organisation. This is possible because the process of determining the wage differentials for different categories of jobs becomes centralised due to job evaluation.

7. Easy training of supervisors. "The requirement for periodic and accurate appraisal levies a burden upon supervision that tends to produce better and more competent supervisor. An immediate superior should be well acquainted with his employees and their performance." This means that a system of job evaluation will condition and train supervisor in the essential functions of judging and helping his personnel.

8. Attracting better workers. Since job evaluation process rewards workers for their efforts, firms having proper job evaluation will attract workers with better than average calibre.

Limitations of Job Evaluation

Although job evaluation plays an important part in modern business, yet it must be used with great caution as the technique has some limitations.

Some of the more important limitations are:

1. Failure to attract workers. "Market pressures may create serious hazards for job evaluation." Sometimes workers are not available at the wage suggested by job evaluation.

2. Cannot be applied to research positions. Job evaluation cannot be

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applied with ease to scientific and research positions and in certain organisations, these research positions are of great importance.

PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL OR MERIT RATING

Importance of Merit Rating

Performance appraisal or merit rating is essentially a group effort, although it is a difficult task. In modern business no firm has a choice as to whether or not it should appraise its personnel and their performance. A sound personnel policy must, therefore, provide for performance appraisal or merit rating. Merit rating is the tool with the help of which the work performed by different workers can be differentiated. The process of appraisal starts at the time of recruitment and continues throughout the working life of an employee in the organisation. The task of merit rating is an important responsibility of management due to the following factors:

(*i*) To decide performance of each member of a group and fix remuneration.

(*ii*) To know whether the worker is performing work up to the expected standards or not.

(*iii*) To judge the calibre of the worker for the purpose of promotion etc.

(*iv*) To discover supervisory potential.

(*v*) To improve morale.

Yoder points out that the term rating has been replaced by the term appraisal in modern businesses and the scope of the term has been widened[1]. Considering the fact that practice has also changed to broaden the evaluation process and continue formal ratings with supplementary observations, records and evaluations, we are now in a position to lay down the definition of performance appraisal. In the words of Yoder it *refers to all the formal procedures used in working organisations to evaluate the personalities and contributions and potential of group members.* In other words, it can be described as the *process of systematic evaluation of the performance and personality of a worker by his superior or some other qualified person.* For the purpose of rating workers in an organisation, the following traits of workers must be considered.

(*i*) *Capacity and ability* to do the work assigned.

(*ii*) *Knowledge of various jobs* and various operations involved.

(*iii*) *Personal characteristics* and habits of work.

[1]Yoder, *op. cit.*, p. 358.

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(*iv*) *Ability to supervise.*

(*v*) Other *special qualities* (where needed).

Approaches in Performance Appraisal

There are *three* possible approaches in performance appraisal. They are as follows:

1. *A casual, unsystematic and often hazard appraisal.*
2. *The traditional and highly systematic measurement of* (*a*) *employee characteristics.* (*b*) *employee contributions or* (*c*) *both.*
3. *The behavioural approach emphasizing mutual goal-setting.*

Casual approach is the most commonly used approach. However, over the years there is a tendency amongst progressive firms to discard this approach which is unscientific and therefore does not allow for proper job evaluation. The other two approaches are scientific. Appraisals are not left to chance but they are undertaken systematically and periodically in order to measure correctly the human performance. An attempt is made to eliminate or reduce bias and prejudice by means of a system that is subject to impartial review and check.

Benefits of Merit Rating

Yoder quotes the "Appraisal and Employee Development Guide" of Standard Oil Company of California which lists out the following benefits of ratings:

1. *Aid the employee in his growth and development* by appraising all phases of his performance and then by following through with constructive discussion and guidance.
2. *Promote the employees* job satisfaction and morale by letting him know that his supervisor is interested in his progress and development.
3. *Serve as a systematic guide to the supervisor* in planning the employee's further training.
4. *Assure considered opinion of employee's performance* rather than snap judgment.
5. *Assist in planning personnel moves and placements* that will best utilize each employee's capabilities.
6. *Assist in locating and recording special talents* and capabilities that might not be otherwise noticed or recognized.
7. *Provide employee an opportunity to talk to his supervisor* about job problems, interest, future, etc.

To these above benefits can be added the following:

1. Merit rating helps in *fixing fair rates of wages.*
2. Since workers are appraised constantly, a *spirit of competition*

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may be infused in their minds as a result of which their performance may improve.

3. Merit rating also *helps to discover and distinguish between good workers and bad workers.*

The above-noted advantages give us an idea about the importance of merit rating. However, it cannot be regarded as an end by itself. It is only a means to ascertain how well a worker performs and helps in achieving group goals, what is his morale, what kind of training he should receive and so on. Merit rating tends to be subjective and, therefore, an effort should be made to make it as objective as it is possible. In order to make rating objective, it is essential that the raters should be properly trained in their task.

Some Methods of Merit Rating

There are many methods of merit rating. These different methods make use of semi-formal and formal rating forms and scales. In most cases, immediate superior is responsible for appraisal. This appraisal may cover the area of actual performance on the job, or potential for more difficult assignments, or both. Many a time the appraisal process may include a counselling procedure in which the worker is informed of the opinions expressed in the appraisal.

Rating scales or forms. In our study the first three methods discussed below cannot be applied unless rating scales are defined. They can be described as the common characteristics on the basis of which workers are appraised. The idea behind them is that there should be some common basis for comparing the performance of different workers. For example, some of these characteristics relate to leadership qualities, others to personal capability, etc.

Of the various methods, four principal methods are discussed as follows:

1. **Ranking methods or system.** It is the simplest and the oldest method of merit rating. Under this method the rater rates his ratee on the basis of different qualities like leadership, personal skill or judgment ability. This is described as *Order-of-Merit* or *Man-to-Man Scale.* There are a few variants of this ranking method. However, their basic characteristics are the same. They are based on the judgment of rater about the attributes of the ratees.

Advantages. The method has the following advantages: (*a*) It is a very *simple method* as it does not require any elaborate machinery to implement. (*b*) It is a *cheap method* and hardly any money is needed to prepare for its institution.

Drawbacks. However, the method has the following drawbacks:

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(*a*) The method *does not provide any systematic procedure* for determining the relative ranks of ratees. (*b*) The method *does not eliminate snap judgments* due to bias. (*c*) The method is *suitable for small* organisations.

2. Graphic scales method. It is the most commonly used method of merit rating. The method is a variant of the man-to-man or order-of-merit method discussed above. Under this method charts or graphs are made out which contain a list of qualities on the basis of which worker's performance is to be judged. Normally the list contains 6 to 12 qualities. The range or degree of each quality is also laid down by the organisation. Either "marks" are assigned for each quality; or letter grades like A,B,C, etc., are given; or simple descriptive words and phrases like "excellent", "good", "average", "poor", etc. are used to denote the worker's performance. Many a time "marks" may be given for varying degrees of performance after "letters" or "words" have been used. Since there may be several raters in an organisation, it is desirable to have uniformity of standards. This uniformity of standards can be attained by giving detailed description of each of several degrees for each quality.

Advantages. The method offers the following advantages: (a) It is a *fairly simple method* and is understood well. both by the rater and the ratee. (*b*) It is a *systematic method* as it tries to measure the various qualities in varying degree ("excellent", "good" or "average").

Drawbacks. The method, although in widespread use, suffers from the following drawbacks: (*a*) *imposes a heavy burden on the rater.* For example, he must report and evaluate the performance of his subordinates on scales involving as many as five degrees of twelve different factors for twenty to thirty workers. This is an extremely difficult task. (*b*) This method is *unsuitable for appraising personnel at higher levels.* Talking about this method, Yoder points out: ". . . more thoughtful managers have recognised the uncertainties in appraising potential for higher levels of responsibility." (*c*) The method *retains the bias of the rater.*

3. Forced choice method or preference check method. This method is an improvement over the graphic scales method just discussed. The forced choice method aims at eliminating the bias that cannot be avoided in the two methods we have discussed. *The method can be described thus*: Blocks of descriptive statements of seemingly equal worth are prepared. Each block contains phrases which refer to the same trait or quality of the ratees. The rater is forced to choose one or the other phrase for the ratee from a block which normally contains four to five phrases. Hence the name forced choice method.

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TABLE 25.1 : SIMPLE GRAPHIC RATING SCALE*

Name	*Position*				*Location*				*Rating as of*	*19*
QUALIFICATION	5	4	3	RATER	2	1	5	4	3	REVIEWER	2	1
Ambition												
Character												
Education												
Health												
Loyalty												
Outside Interests												
Personality												
Present Activity												
Other Activities												
Procedure & Policy												
Accepts Responsibility												
Application												
Attendance												
Care & Exactness												
Cooperation												
Expression												
Follows Instructions												
Housekeeping												
Initiative												
Intelligence												
Judgement												
Rate of Work												
Sense of Economy												

Note: Check rating figure for each quality. 5-Excellent; 4-Good; 3-Average; 2-Fair; 1-Poor. *Source:* Yoder, *op. cit.*, p. 368.

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For instance a pair of phrases like the following may be presented to the rater for rating:

(*i*) Can he be depended upon to complete any job assigned.

(*ii*) Gives good clear instructions to his subordinates.

The rater, as already stated, is forced to select one or the other of the above phrases although both are equally applicable or inapplicable. The blocks containing unfavourable phrases are also constructed with a view to remove bias and leniency on the part of the rater. Normally a rater gives both the most appropriate and the most unfavourable phrase for a ratee in a given block. Quite often the rating is done by giving the most appropriate serial number 1, the next 2, and so on to all the phrases in a block.

In order to appraise the rater's reaction, a *secret scoring key* is devised which contains the most appropriate appraisal. This scoring key is prapared with the help of a study of present personnel. The object of preparing this key is that after the performance is recorded by the rater, it is rated with the help of this key.

Advantages. The advantages of this system are: (*a*) It *eliminates bias* as the rater is forced to choose phrases from blocks. (*b*) It also *cuts short time spent in rating* and hence is economical to the extent that lesser time is consumed in the process.

Drawbacks. The disadvantages of the system are numerous: (*a*) It is almost *impossible to keep the scoring key secret* and therefore the very purpose is defeated. (*b*) The *rater is forced to make decisions,* although he may feel that neither of the phrases in a block applies to a ratee; and thus true appraisal is not possible. (*c*) This method is *a very poor one to use if employee development is to be emphasized.* The reason for this is that often neither the rater nor the ratee is able to understand the form properly. Hence the results are not encouraging. Because of these disadvantages, the method is not in widespread use.

4. Method of behavioural approach appraisal.[1] The above methods are based on traditional approach to the problems of appraisal. Modern industry has recognised the importance of employees (the ratees) and thus new approaches are being adopted towards them by organisations in the USA and other countries of the West. The behaviouralists contend that the traditional systems lack reliability and validity because they rely on the judgment of the manager and proper response of the subordinate and these two (judgment and response) are

[1] Flippo, *op. cit.*

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never present. Flippo quotes Herbert Meyers[1] and others who assessed the appraisal system in General Electric. It was found that in the case of traditional approach, the responses and improvements were poor. On the other hand, responses and improvements were better with the behavioural approach system.

The behavioural approach is called "*goals approach*", or "management by objectives," or "work planning and review." In practice, the method works like this: (*i*) *Setting job goals.* Jobs are described properly and job goals are established. (*ii*) *Listing objectives by employees.* After job goals have been set, the subordinate is asked to prepare a list of reasonable objectives for the coming period of six to twelve months. It means the subordinate "contributes." (*iii*) *Interview.* An interview is then held with the supervisor to discuss goals and plans and a final set is worked out. (*iv*) *Progress reporting.* At the end of the designated period, another interview is held during which progress is compared with the goals and plans.

Advantages. It has the following advantages: (*a*) Raters and ratees get *greater satisfaction* because both the parties are deeply involved in the process. (*b*) There is *greater agreement* and conflicts are few since objectives are set in consultation with the subordinates. (*c*) The method also offers *greater comfort* to the raters as well as the ratees. (*d*) The method also results in *lesser tension* and hostility as there is mutuality of objectives.

Drawbacks. The system, however, suffers from certain serious drawbacks, chief of which are: (*a*) *Problem of goal setting.* The system pre-supposes that the job to be performed must be such that the goal establishment is possible by others than the manager. This is just not possible in many situations. (*b*) *Difficulty in administration.* The task of administration becomes very difficult because the system involves considerable time, thought and contact between supervisor and subordinate which may not be possible in all cases (more especially so where span of control is large). (*c*) *Inadequate information.* Under this system, the entire emphasis is on training and development. The result is that comparable data for different workers may not become available for the purposes of pay rise and promotion (*d*) *Over-emphasis on personnel management.* The system is also excessively geared to personnel management rather than general management. (*e*) *Problem of coordinated goals.* Individual goals and objec-

[1]H. Meyers and others, "Split Roles in Performance Appraisal", *Harvard Business Review*, Jan.-Feb., 1965.

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tives do not add up to organisational goals and objectives. Hence the problem of coordinated goals remains to be tackled.

TRAINING OF WORKERS

Scientific Training

Once a candidate has been selected properly, it becomes necessary to train him adequately for the task. The *reasons* for this are: (*i*) *Increased productivity*. An increase in skill results in an increase in quality and quantity of output. (*ii*) *Better morale*. Possession of necessary skill gives greater confidence to the worker and thus morale becomes better. (*iii*) *Reduced supervision*. Proper training reduces the need for supervision to the minimum. (*iv*) *Better handling of costly machines and computer*. Training leads to better handling of machines and computer, which contributes to greater work-output. (*v*) *Improved organisational stability and flexibility*. Turnover tends to shake the stability of an organisation. However, a reservoir of trained replacements helps in eliminating instability. Besides, short-run variations require the presence of personnel with multiple skills, particularly in the office, to switch over to different jobs. Also there is fuller use of office machines, particularly the computer. This is only possible if the personnel is trained properly.

Principles of Training

Summary of the principles of training is as follows: (*i*) *Motivation*. "The more highly motivated the trainee, the more quickly and thoroughly a new skill is learned." (*ii*) *Progress reports*. It is necessary that the correct progress report is given to trainee so that he may assess himself properly. (*iii*) *Practice*. Effective learning on the part of the trainee presupposes adequate practice which can be properly spaced so as to keep the processes of learning and practice integrated. (*iv*) *Reinforcement*. "When skills are learned, the effect should be reinforced by means of rewards and punishments." Rewards take the shape of pay increases, promotions and praise. The punishments take the shape of penalties, etc. (*v*) *Individual difference*. The training must be geared to the intelligence and aptitude of individual trainees. (*vi*) *Whole versus part*. Where jobs to be handled are long and complex, it would be better to train people in sub-portions so that it is only in course of time that the total job is learnt. However, where the job is simple, it would be worthwhile to train people for the whole job at the same time. (*vii*) *Adaptability*. One peculiar requirement of the office is versatility or interchangeability of jobs.

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It is, therefore, essential that training should take care of this aspect. Besides, it is essential to consider that this principle can be of great use when promotions are made from amongst the staff.

Methods of Training

Various methods of training must incorporate the above principles. These methods are:

1. **On-the-job training.** It is a basic system of training which must be utilised by every organisation. Its greatest advantage is that it motivates the employee most.

Advantages. (*i*) *Strong motivation.* It strongly motivates the trainee to learn because he is working in actual circumstances or in the "field."(*ii*) *Easy checking.* The skill acquired by a trainee can be checked very easily from time to time. (*iii*) *Personnel development.* It also allows for development of the personnel already working in the organisation to instruct well.

Disadvantages. (*i*) The method poses the *problem of training* the instructor. (*ii*) Similarly the *preparation of trainee poses a problem.* Lot of research, etc., would be needed for the purpose of the preparation of the trainee before he starts receiving the training. (*iii*) The method also *obstructs regular work plans.* (*iv*) Only larger organisations with surplus of resources (men, machines and materials) can afford this type of training. (*v*) The method *lacks specialisation* on the part of the trainer who hands over defective knowledge.

2. **Vestibule school.** A vestibule school is operated by the personnel department and helps to train the worker as the on-the-job training programme tries to do. Where the capacity of the line to train people on-the-job is limited, vestibule school will have to be used. Vestibule school offers the advantages of specialisation.

Advantages. The advantages of vestibule training are the same as those for on-the-job training. There are certain additional advantages: (*i*) The *work plans do not get disturbed* as the personnel department is running a separate vestibule school for training where on-the-job conditions prevail. (*ii*) There are advantages of *specialisation* because vestibule training is given by specialists. (*iii*) The *trainee also avoids the strains* and stresses of on-the-job training and thus learns the processes of work very quickly. (*iv*) *Instruction is more individualised* and each trainee gets due attention from his supervisor or instructor.

Disadvantages. The disadvantages of the method are the same as that for the on-the-job training programme. However, as already stated, the method eliminates the possibility of the obstruction of

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normal production and also specialisation avoids the pitfalls associated with the on-the-job training programme. However the method has certain distinct disadvantages, chief of which are: (*i*) The method *creates difficulties of line-staff*. The personnel trained by the vestibule school may be found wanting and the line supervisor may blame the trainers. All this may lead to conflicts in the organisation. (*ii*) In most cases the *trainees are working in artificial situations* and they, therefore, lack the insight into actual situations.

3. Apprenticeship programme. This type of programme is taken up for jobs requiring higher levels of skill. Apprenticeship programme aims at providing education not normally given in the case of vestibule training or on-the-job training. In fact the objective here is to train the employees for jobs which are inter-related. The apprenticeship programme combines on-the-job training and experience with classroom instruction in specified subjects.

Advantages. This method has the same type of advantages or disadvantages as for on-the-job method: (*i*) *Better status of apprentice.* The apprentice enjoys the same organisational and financial status as a regular employee and to that extent he benefits. (*ii*) *Higher morale.* Since he becomes a part of the organisation as a full member, he usually has a high morale.

Disadvantages. The system has the same type of disadvantages as the on-the-job method. Additional disadvantages are: (*i*) The method is more *costly* as apprentice enjoys the same financial status as the regular employee although he is less productive. (*iii*) *Hostility of trade unions* is another factor. They often do not like the direct recruitment of apprentices for higher posts.

4. Special courses. Special courses are designed to educate the employees about the organisation and its history, and the different processes of production, selling and management. These courses are normally run by the organisation with the help of its own trained personnel.

Advantages. The method has certain unique advantages, chief of which are: (*i*) Learning process can be reinforced through *feedback* of results. (*ii*) The learner is allowed to learn at the *pace* at which he can learn. (*iii*) The programme breaks the subjects into bits and thus *learning becomes easy.* (*iv*) It is easy to establish explicit *goals* of learning. (*v*) *Participation* on the part of the learner becomes essential.

Disadvantages. (*i*) The programme is *best suited to transmit facts* and not attitudes, so essential in the case of management. (*ii*) It is a very *costly method* and only a very large firm can afford special

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courses. (*iii*) It is desirable that learners should have almost the *same standard of knowledge* and diligence otherwise the course may go out of gear as it requires active participation of every member of the group.

Conclusion

There is no one best system of training workers. One may find all the four systems in use at the same time in large organisations although the first method is by far the most popular. However with the increasing use of machines and stricter needs of automation in the office, special courses will come to occupy an ever-increasing importance in future in our country.

TRAINING OF SUPERVISORS

A supervisor is one who supervises the work of others. He usually occupies the first step up the ladder. It is he who would motivate the employees working under him to better performance. He is the head of a small team of workers. It is thus necessary that he should be properly trained in the task of supervision so that his subordinates work efficiently and contribute effectively to the goals of the enterprise. He commands respect and obedience from his fellow-workers for his knowledge and personality.

Supervisory training may be for those who are to be promoted to supervisory levels or for those who are transferred from one supervisory job to another and need fresh orientation or re-training to cope with the new responsibilities and training. Whatever be the nature of the supervisory training, it is essential to incorporate certain essential elements in their training, chief of which are as in Table 25.2.

Methods of Supervisory Training

There are many methods of supervisory training, chief of which are summarised as follows: (*i*) *Conference method* is one in which the head of the group leads the discussion by employees and is found to be useful in the field of human relations. (*ii*) *Lecture method* is one in which the head of the group lectures and imparts knowledge. (*iii*) *On-the-job supervisory training method* is one where the supervisor is put on the job and is allowed to work and gain knowledge and experience. (*iv*) *Understudy supervisory training method* is on-the-job training where a supervisor is assigned an understudy who is given regular duties and responsibility of becoming familiar with the

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TABLE 25.2

BASIC SKILL TRAINING RECORD

Section *Name*

Supervisor in Charge:

Subject	*Planned date*	*Actual data*	*Trained by*	*Trainer's comments*	*Cost information*
Incoming Mail					
Pre-sort					
Opening					
Cash and cheques					
Sorting					
Delivery					
Filing					
Explanation					
Marking-up					
Sorting					
Putting away					
Finding					
Recording out					
Duplicating					
Explanation					
Preparing masters					
Setting up machines					
Running machine					
Cleaning down					
Storing masters					
Telephone					
Visit to switchboard					
Making calls					
Receiving calls					
Reception					
Receiving visitors					
Tracing people					
Turning visitors away					

Training Officer's Comments:

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operations of his supervisor. (*v*) *Job rotational supervisory training* is a method of training that assigns changing tasks and responsibilities to supervisors. The departmental heads evaluate the work of individuals for the purposes of management training and correct placement of supervisors.

Ideal Method of Training Supervisors

There is no single ideal method of training supervisors. Sometimes more than one method may be combined to give adequate grounding in different aspects of supervision. For example, a supervisor may have the potential to become good instructor and thus in that situation he may go through the processes of conference and lecture methods besides doing job rotational supervisory training.

MANAGEMENT TRAINING

The functions of management are to be performed effectively. This calls for the right type of managers at the higher levels who are well-trained for the tasks of management. Most office managers occupy places in higher management in specialised positions, such as company secretaries, accountants, sales managers, personnel managers and so on. For each of these positions, management training would be essential. The methods of training would be same as those stated for the training of supervisors. However, the universities and specialised management institutions in our country have also started conducting specialised courses for training in different operative functions of management. The training courses run outside the firm are to be backed by on-the-job courses and putting a manager as an understudy.

PLACEMENT OF EMPLOYEES

After the employee has been selected and recruited, the problem of placement arises. *Placement can be defined as the work of assigning a specific job to an employee.* An employee, for example, by temperament may be better suited to work as the accounts clerk but he is given the work of the typist. This would naturally mean that he lacks proper interest in the job assigned to him. Thus his performance would be poor and he would commit mistakes. Not only this, he would think of leaving the organisation in course of time to secure better placement. *Proper placement of the employee results in the following: (i) Better motivation* resulting in better performance, (*ii*) *lower*

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supervisory costs, (*iii*) *lower rate of absenteeism*, (*iv*) *lower rate of labour-turnover*, (*v*) *better utilisation of equipment* and machines, and (*vi*) *satisfaction of the ego needs* of the workers.

How to Avoid Wrong Placement of Workers?

Although it is not possible to avoid wrong placement of workers completely, yet it can be minimised by proper selection of workers through scientific selection. However, in practice, correct placement can be achieved through a trial and error process. Many a time bad placement takes place where the personnel department and the operating department lack coordination. The operating department is not informed about the vital details concerning the employee. It is thus necessary that the personnel department and the operating departments must have proper coordination so that placement is correct.

An effective system of *follow-up* helps to avoid wrong placements. Follow-up can be described as *the process in which the work of the employee is assessed at frequent intervals and the performance is recorded in his service record.* If an employee is consistently showing a poor performance, it would be better to take a corrective action through transfer. The role of the supervisor is important in the matter of correct placements. He can watch and evaluate the performance of the employee and help him to 'move' to a place in which he is the 'best-fit'.

PROMOTION

Promotion Defined

The opportunity for promotion is considered to be fundamental to the progressive organisation and also to ' . unction of personnel development. A man has no initiative towards self-development if he lacks opportunity to advance. Advancement within an organisation is called "promotion". *A promotion involves a change from one job to another that is better in terms of status and responsibility.* Ordinarily the change to the higher job is accompanied by increased pay and privileges, but not always. In fact, the term promotion may refer to an increase in responsibility and status without an increase in pay. Promotion implies that as and when vacancies at higher levels occur, they are filled up with the help of employees working at lower levels in the organisation. In other words, outsiders are recruited normally only at the lowest level.

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Promotion and Transfer

The two terms are quite different from each other. Transfer refers to changes in jobs that involve little or no change in status, responsibility, and pay.

Promotion and Upgrading

The term upgrading is also quite different from the term promotion. Upgrading refers to a situation where an individual retains his present job but gets a pay rise. It can be described as a kind of promotion although the basic features of promotion of increased status and responsibility, are not to be found in upgrading.

Significance and Purpose of Promotion

Promotion policy of an organisation is of great significance to an organisation. The purpose and significance of promotion can be summed up as follows:

1. The effect on the attitudes and actions of employees. Most employees feel more secure and identify their long-range interests with those of the organisation when they anticipate promotions. In short, they have better morale.

2. The level of specialisation. There are certain industries in which certain specialized training is needed for higher jobs which can be only provided within the organisations, *e.g.*, the electronics industry.

3. Desire of the management for participation by employees. Only an old employee knows the policies and practices of a firm. Hence from the point of view of the firm also promotion becomes essential.

Whatever be the situation, it is essential that employees must be given an opportunity for advancement in the organisation to keep it going as well as growing. Lack of promotion opportunity creates discontentment among workers. Although promotion policy is of strategic importance, it would be proper to introduce talent from outside to keep up initiative and originality in the structure. This becomes even more important where the training programmes of the organisation are of low standards due to numerous controllable and uncontrollable factors.

Promotion on the Basis of Seniority or Merit

Since promotion from within is a widely accepted and long-established policy, it would be essential to define a basis for promotion. There are two *bases of promotion from within*: (*i*) *seniority*, and (*ii*) *merit*. *Seniority can be defined as the length of recognised service in an organisation.* In other words, longer the service of a person in an organi

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sation, more senior he is. *Merit can be described as a quality which makes a person better than others.*

Arguments in favour of seniority. Seniority has many notable advantages over merit as a basis for promotion. They are summarised as follows:

1. *Exactness.* Seniority can be measured with exactness in terms of the amount of service put in the organisation in a specific capacity.

2. *Objectivity.* Seniority is the only objective criterion to judge a person's ability. How can one know whether a particular worker has better ability or not? Bias and favouritism get eliminated.

3. *Simplicity.* It is a very simple basis for promotion which can be easily transmitted to the employees.

4. *Accepted by employees.* Since seniority is easily understood by employees and also it is exact, it is therefore accepted by employees as a reasonable basis for promotion.

5. *Industrial peace.* Industrial peace is also ensured due to the acceptance of the seniority principle by the employees. Trade unions are also not hostile to the seniority principle.

6. *Security.* An employee is able to predict how and when changes will be made and thus he feels more secure in his job.

7. *Reduction in labour turnover.* Seniority tends to reduce labour turnover because the employees know that they have a chance to get promoted within the organisation in which they work and on quitting their jobs they will forfeit seniority once they join another organisation.

Arguments against seniority and in favour of merit. Seniority as a basis for promotion ignores certain aspects which criterion of merit takes into account, which are:

1. *Seniority ignores merits or ability.* In fact, there cannot be definite correlation between seniority and ability. Although experience is a great teacher, yet there is no guarantee that a person will consent to be taught or that he will be able to learn with the passing of years.

2. *Seniority acts as a disincentive to learn, work hard and improve.* Only thing that a person has to do is to "stick around". Thus seniority cannot be used to identify the best man.

3. *Seniority over-values experience.* It does not guarantee the selection of competent personnel.

4. *Seniority drives out better men.* It does not provide for the selection of an able and ambitious employee and thus he seeks opportunities elsewhere. It also means that better talent, for fear of being stuck, never joins the organisation using seniority principle.

5. *Seniority means lower productivity and lower profits.* A natural

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outcome of disincentive to work hard and turnover of better employees is that productivity and profits of the organisation decline.

Considering the above discussion, it can be said that seniority as well as merit have strong arguments in their favour. The question therefore arises as to what should be the basis of promotion. Many compromises have been worked out between the extremes of pure seniority and pure merit one of which can be described as, "When ability is substantially equal seniority will govern." Then there is another compromise in which lower level jobs go by seniority and higher level jobs go by merits. To judge merit, well-designed merit rating programmes can be used which will also find the acceptance of the employees.

Elements of a Sound Promotion Policy

Promotion policy should incorporate the following elements:

1. Senior vacancies are to be filled up from within.
2. Workers and management should mutually agree to apply seniority as well as merit principles for promotion.
3. There should be proper provision for job-evaluation and merit rating so that workers are able to judge their own efficiency.
4. Although the top management is required to take the final decision, it is the supervisor or the departmental head who shall make the recommendation for promotion. Personnel department of the organisation should also be consulted by the top management.
5. Probation period should be fixed and the promoted personnel should be put on trial before final confirmation takes place.
6. It would be desirable to have adequate training facilities for promotion.

TRANSFER OF EMPLOYEES

Transfer may be defined as a change in job that involves little or no change in status, responsibility and pay. The transfer may be from one job to another job in the same department or another department in the office. *Transfers become necessary on account of the following reasons*: (*i*) *to enhance training and development*; (*ii*) *to remedy a problem of poor placement*; (*iii*) *to enable adjustment* to varying volumes of work within the department or the firm; (*iv*) *to meet contingencies* of absence, leave, etc.; and (*v*) to *allow transfers* on health grounds.

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Types of Transfers

On the basis of the above reasons for transfers, transfers can be of the following types:

(*i*) *Versatility transfer* is one when an employee is transferred from one job to another in order to give him training in different aspects of functioning of the organisation.

(*ii*) *Personnel transfer or remedial transfer* is one which is done to remedy a poor placement.

(*iii*) *Production transfer* is one which is done to enable adjustment to varying volumes of work in the department or the organisation.

(*iv*) *Placement transfer* is one where an employee is transferred to take up the job of another who has gone on leave or has been laid off.

(*v*) *Shift transfer* is one which takes place due to promotion of some persons.

Policy of Transfers

It is desirable that the organisation should formulate a proper policy for employee transfers for effective management. Such a policy should incorporate the following *features*: (*i*) the acceptable reasons for a transfer; (*ii*) the organisation area over which a transfer can be made; (*iii*) the effect of seniority on such changes as shift transfers; (*iv*) the posting of available job openings; (*v*) the classification of transfers as temporary or permanent; and (*vi*) the effect on the pay of the employees, if any. The policy of transfer should be such which takes care of the interests of the organisation as a whole. However, such a policy cannot be rigid, it has to be flexible. Flexibility takes care of the contingencies and also the personnel transfers which become necessary due to bad placement.

QUESTIONS

1. What is personnel management? State its functions.
2. State how would you set up the personnel department. What factors would you consider while doing so?
3. "The need for recruitment is basic to proper functioning of the office." Discuss.
4. You are the Manager (Admin.) of a medium-sized firm. You have been informed by the M.D. about the expansion programme of your company. Consequently, you need more staff for your office at the junior and supervisory levels. State the procedure you would follow in their recruitment and selection. How would you determine the actual number needed for the purpose?

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5. What is job analysis? Explain its importance. Outline the job analysis process.

6. Write notes on: (*a*) Job description; (*b*) Job specifications; and (*c*) Job grading. How are these related to the job analysis?

7. Write a note on the interviewing process.

8. What is induction? What is its importance. State its benefits. Is it necessary to back it up with follow-up?

9. What is job evaluation? What are its objectives and utility? Is it true to say that it has no drawbacks?

10. Explain the different methods of job evaluation. What are the factors to be considered in job evaluation.

11. What is performance appraisals? Why is it necessary in an organisation? Which traits of employees would you consider in rating workers?

12. Explain the different approaches to performance appraisal. What are its benefits?

13. Discuss any two methods of merit-rating. Which method of merit-rating you consider as most scientific and why?

14. Why is there a need for scientific training of workers in the office? State the principles and methods of employee training.

15. You are the Commercial Manager responsible for administrative function. You have been feeling the need for giving proper training to your supervisors. How would you organise it?

16. Write notes on: (*a*) Supervisory training; (*b*) Management training; and (*c*) Placement of employees.

17. What is purpose and significance of promotion in an office? Outline the features of a sound poiicy of promotion.

18. You are the Director (Admin.) of a very large public sector company. Your advice has been sought by the Board about promotion policy to be followed. Give your advice.

19. What is meant by the transfer of employees? Why is it needed? State the different types of transfers.

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Chapter 26

OFFICE PERSONNEL—II

SALARIES AND WAGES

Salaries and Wages can be described as one of the core problems of personnel management. In fact, it may not be wrong to state that they are the most important single problem in human relations. Wages can be paid either (*i*) on the basis of time, or (*ii*) on the basis of output. The system is called time-rate or *time-wage system* where wages are paid on the basis of time. Where they are paid on the basis of output, the system is called piece-rate or *piece-wage system*. All the methods adopted by various organisations are based on these two basic systems.

Office salary or wage is based on time. It is rarely that the office work is got done on piece-rate. In a small office, however, sometimes a little extra work of typing, accounts preparation, cyclostyling and photocopying may be done by outside agencies on a contract basis or piece-rate management consultancy may be a contract assignment even in a bigger organisation.

Satisfactory wage plan. No wage plan for the office can be termed as ideal. However, an effort should be made to make it as satisfactory as possible. A satisfactory wage plan should possess the following *characteristics:*

1. The worker should be given a *guaranteed minimum wage.*
2. *Base wages* for each job classification or skill should be related to each other in terms of job requirements, due consideration being given to such factors as skill, length of time required in learning, versatility required and working conditions.
3. Time and motion studies should be used to establish *standards* that may be expected and wages should be then determined.
4. The wage plan should facilitate the *comparison of relative efficiencies* of various departments.
5. The wage plan should be related to *cost controls.*
6. The wage plan should not involve excessive *clerical costs.*
7. The wage plan should make adequate provision for learners.

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8. The wage plan should be flexible in order to meet changing conditions.

9 The wage plan should be simple so that the employees understand it easily.

INCENTIVE PLANS

In order to stimulate productivity in the factory or office, it is necessary to give wage incentives to workers. Although financial incentives cannot achieve maximum efficiency on the part of the employees yet they do bring about positive results. Wage incentives originated in the factory and some of them have been tried with success. In our country, wage incentive schemes have not been applied in large measure even in the factory. The nearest to a wage incentive for the office and factory is the bonus, which is paid to each and every worker irrespective of his personal efficiency.

Principles of Incentive Plans

A satisfactory incentive plan for office employees or for any set of employees, must be based on sound principles, which are summarised as follows:

1. **Principle of investigation and evaluation.** Every incentive plan should be based on scientific investigation and evaluation so that it produces the best results.
2. **Principle of simplicity.** It should be simple to understand and operate.
3. **Principle of acceptability.** It should be acceptable to workers.
4. **Principle of stability.** The incentive plan should give fairly stable earnings over a period of time. A minimum, but adequate, wage must be ensured.
5. **Principle of wide coverage.** The incentive plan should cover the maximum number of workers, possibly all.
6. **Principle of flexibility.** The incentive plan should be flexible so that necessary changes may be introduced quickly.
7. **Principle of quality.** Not only the quantity but the quality of the output should be of the desired standards.
8. **Principle of maximum supervisors' participation.** The incentive plan should ensure maximum participation by the supervisor. He should be recognised as an important person in the middle for his contribution to productivity and quality control.
9. **Principle of prompt reward.** Reward of incentive premium should

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be prompt. If the reward is remote or late, the incentive to create more output may be less.

Some Special Problems of Office Incentive Plans

Today's large-scale office is becoming more and more mechanised. Constant ticking-tacking of office machines has started giving it factory-like systems. In spite of this change in the office, office still remains and shall remain, for a along time to come, that part of an organisation where individual effort is less important than the group effort. This means that individual incentive plans common to the factory may not be of much use to the office. There can be two types of incentive plans for the office worker, which are:

1. *Scanlon Plan.*
2. *Profit-sharing Plan.*

In the following few paragraphs we consider these two types of plans in some detail.

SCANLON PLAN[1]

Scanlon plan is a *productivity sharing plan.* The plan has been named after Joseph N. Scanlon. He was an ordinary worker in a steel plant and rose to be the director of research and engineering for the steel workers union in the USA. Later on he joined the famous Massachusetts Institute of Technology as a Lecturer in the Industrial Relations Section.

The plan was formulated in early 1940s when he was president of the local steel workers' union in a small steel plant in Ohio. Later on the idea was extended to other companies. By 1975, the Scanlon plan had worked very successfully in nearly 85 firms in the USA in many industries having employees between 8,000 and 100. It is a cooperative plan and has increased productivity and gains.

The background of the Scanlon Plan. The Scanlon Plan must be considered an experiment in *genuine participation* on the part of both the parties, *i.e.*, the employees and the management. The employees on their part consider the problems of the organisation as *joint* problems to be solved by them and the management. They see a clearer relation between their jobs and the results produced. The management reveals information which is "*confidential*" and is willing to share all types of information with the employees. Employees

[1]See Paul Pigors and Charles A. Myers, *Personnel Administration*, McGraw-Hill, 8th Edition, 1977.

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have the freedom to make suggestions, to criticise, and to put questions about problems that were formerly considered to be "none of their business."

The outline of the Scanlon Plan. A successful Scanlon Plan operates as follows:

1. *Scope.* The premiun or bonus is paid to all employees in the organisation, including the office employees. The lower managers are also included for the purpose. There are some firms in which top managers (and even owners) are included.

The Plan provides for sharing the *savings* each month with *all* the employees in the firm.

2. *Savings defined.* The savings are based on productivity, *i.e.*, they are productivity bonus. The savings are calculated by finding a ratio of labour cost to total sales value of production, or some other measure, which can be used for calculating the savings under the Plan over normal costs. One way of looking at the problem is to prepare budgets of costs and output.[1] For the purpose of the Plan, "labour costs" are the total cost of wages and salaries of all employees covered by the Plan. The savings are equal to savings affected in labour costs during the month.

3. *Ratio of sharing.* The savings are shared amongst the employees and the management. The shares are weighted in favour of the employees. In some cases the employees get 100 per cent. Where the financial position of the firm is shaky, 60-40 share in favour of the employees is given. The most frequent sharing is 75-25 in favour of the employees.

4. *Changing sharing ratio.* Agreements between employees and management contain provision for change in sharing ratios due to factors such as changes in prices and wages and a major change in technology. Of course, only major changes affect sharing ratio.

5. *Savings reserve.* A part of the productivity bonus or savings is put in a reserve for paying out bonus during a period when none is earned, *e.g.*, a period of sales slump. The amount left undistributed at the end of the year is paid out.

6. *Suggestion system.* The Plan is based on a suggestion system. As already indicated, the employees are free to suggest and criticise.

7. *Departmental and screening committees.* Committees are formed at the departmental level[2] which consist of management and union representatives to gather and act upon suggestions for reducing costs

[1] In most cases standard costing technique is used. Thus cost standards are available.

[2] Also called departmental production committees.

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and increasing output in the respective departments, including the office. Suggestions which have wider application, go to a "*screening committee*" consisting of top management and local union representatives.

Matters of collective bargaining and grievances are kept out of the scope of the screening committee.

8. *Discussion.* The screening committee discusses all problems facing the business—costs, tenders, production problems and bottlenecks, information and communication problems, customer rejections, quality control problems, materials shortages and fuel shortages. In fact organisation is regarded as an "open" system and nothing is held back.

9. *Distributing minutes and follow-up.* The minutes of the screening committee are distributed amongst everyone in the firm. Key points in the minutes are discussed amongst the management and workers not on the committee so that complete sharing of ideas takes place as a follow-up measure. The plan ensures excellent two-way communication in the organisation.

Benefits of the Scanlon Plan. The working of the Plan has resulted in benefits to all. They are summarised as follows:

1. *Improved efficiency.* The workers contribute their utmost to efficiency. The suggestions they make for improvement in systems, cost reduction, communication and coordination lead to greater efficiency.

2. *Mutuality of spirit.* Management and workers cooperate to make use of untapped efficiency potential. There is "genuine participation in problem solving", class conflicts are absent.

3. *Management gains.* The gains to management and owners are immense. The lower costs lead to greater profitability. Also since employees get highly motivated, less supervision is needed. Better planning results since it becomes necessary for management "to be on their toes" to plan ahead. Adequate flow of orders as well as materials is to be ensured. However directing the employees and giving orders are less difficult since the Plan develops self-discipline and real teamwork.

4. *Better quality.* The quality of goods and services rendered by the firm improves. This means better use of machines and materials and also greater satisfaction of the customer.

5. *Growth.* The plan ensures prosperity of the firm and leads to growth. Pigors and Myers quote the productivity gains of 10 firms having Scanlon Plan which gained average (unweighted) of 23.1 per cent. This means better growth prospects.

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Some problems in the Scanlon Plan. The Scanlon Plan may face problems in its implementation. They are summarised as follows:

1. *Bypassing the first-level supervisor.* The effect of the release of ideas by the departmental committees is that the first-level supervisors are bypassed. But since they share in the plan, cooperation among supervisors and workers develops. It is the duty of the higher management to aid in the development of such cooperation.

2. *Danger to management's "right to manage."* The committees are advisory in theory but they often take decisions on production (and information) problems. This may mean that the "right to manage" is in danger. Thus the management may feel hurt because of criticism, etc. This, however, is the initial problem and once the management understands the true nature of the working of the plan and the benefits that are obtained, the management would find the job of managing easier and rewarding.

3. *Challenge to unions.* The more militant amongst the unions may consider the Scanlon Plan a means to divide the ranks of the working class. This is only an ill-founded fear since the Plan has nothing to do with grievances and collective bargaining processes. The Plan in fact makes the management-worker relationship more maturé and allows the unions to play their part at different levels—plant, industry or national level. Of course the Plan has backfired where the management refused to allow the workers to play an equal part in the affairs of the firm.

4. *Problem of changes in ratios.* Changes in ratio may result in misunderstandings. However, the committee system backed by freedom of views is able to overcome this problem.

Indian Setting and the Scanlon Plan

The Scanlon Plan is worth a trial in the Indian setting. Productivity has been a big problem in India. One symptom has been gross underutilisation of capacity in most of the industries. The Plan has attacked the problem of productivity in more than one way. It has increased productivity, reduced inefficiency and stabilised industrial relations. They are the needs of the hour in our country. Besides, with its suggestion system and a spirit of democratic setting, it is also bound to do away with the fears of the working class. However, the managements may by averse to the Plan since there is always the fear that it may take away the right of the management to manage, a fear without justification.

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EMPLOYEE PROFIT-SHARING

Employee profit-sharing is one of the most glamorous kinds of monetary compensations used in modern business. It began in the middle of the nineteenth century in France and has since grown in popularity. In the USA, as many as 2,36,000 profit sharing plans were in operation in 1974. International Cooperative Congress in 1897 has given a very simple and direct definition of the term in these words: "An agreement freely entered into, by which the employees receive a share, fixed in advance of the profits." Although the term profit-sharing is not used precisely by many, a true plan of profit-sharing "involves a definite commitment on the part of management to pay, over and above a fair wage, an extra compensation which bears a definite percentage relationship to company profits or declared dividends." In other words, the term profit-sharing does not include bonuses paid to employees on profits, which are not assured on a continuing basis. Profit-sharing thus implies continuity in terms of payment over a period of time.

Types of Profit-Sharing

There are two kinds of profit-sharing plans: (*i*) *Cash or current distribution plan.* Under this plan, the share of profit is distributed in cash amongst workers at least once every year. (*ii*) *Trust or deferred distribution plan.* Under this plan, the share of the amount of profit is not distributed in cash amongst workers but a trust fund is created, the benefits from which are distributed in the event of death, retirement or disability. Many managements place part of the profits in trust and distribute the other part in cash.

Arguments in Favour of Profit-Sharing

Employee profit-sharing is a controversial form of employee remuneration. Those who favour profit-sharing offer the following arguments in its favour:

1. Improved productive efficiency. Profit-sharing effects an increase in productive efficiency through reducing costs and increasing output. The workers try to produce more so that the average cost of production may decline and the profitability may increase.

2. Improvement in employee morale. It also improves employee morale and reduces the chances of strife between the workers and the management. Profit-sharing implies common interest of labour and capital. They understand that their interests are best served if they

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cooperate to improve the quantity of profits. Hence industrial peace is ensured.

3. Better earnings for workers. The workers also benefit as profit-sharing scheme brings greater compensation to them. This means that they enjoy greater purchasing power.

4. Security. Where a trust plan is in operation, it provides for adequate security in the event of death, retirement or disability.

5. Helps in the economics education of the employees. Profit-sharing also gives economics education to the employee. He starts understanding the processes of economics and business.

6. Reduces labour turnover. It also reduces labour turnover. Profit-sharing stabilises working force because no profit becomes payable to a worker who leaves his job right in the middle of the year. Hence the workers are provided with the incentive to remain in their jobs. It is needless to say that large turnover causes a variety of problems for an organisation.

7. Improves supervision and administration. Since the workers are willing to cooperate in the cause of productivity, problems of supervision become few.

8. Helps to realise social justice. Profit-sharing also helps to achieve some amount of social justice by correlating the earnings of workers with the profit-earning capacity of the enterprise. Thus profit-sharing leads to more equitable distribution of earnings of the society.

9. Improves public relations. Profit-sharing also improves the image of the enterprise in the eyes of public at large. The public is impressed by the willingness of the enterprise to share its prosperity with the workers.

Arguments against Profit-Sharing

The case against profit-sharing is equally strong. Its opponents state the following drawbacks or *disadvantages*:

1. Extra income bears little relation to individual employee effort. Profits are made up of the efforts put in by the labour as well as other factors of production. Profits are effected by location, efficient management, size and other factors which are in no way related to workers. It may be stated that in some years profits might be depressingly low not on account of the lack of effort on the part of the workers but on account of market and other forces. Such a situation will certainly demoralise the work-force.

2. It is difficult to measure the varying contributions of individuals. In other words, the scheme fails to distinguish between good workers

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and bad workers and they are rewarded equally. This reduces the value of profit-sharing scheme because workers may not put in their best efforts to achieve the lowest average cost. In short, there is little incentive value of such a scheme.

3. Extra compensation is not paid soon after the employee effort is made. The compensation is paid only once a year; and in many cases no cash payment is made, if there is deferred distribution scheme. Thus the reward is not immediate and its motivational force is less.

4. Profit-sharing is morale depressant. Employees usually regard a reasonably steady profit share as a part of their regular earnings. If there is no profit during a particular year, the workers are greatly upset. As a result of this, they ask for the abolition of the profit-sharing scheme accompanied by a raise in basic wages. Thus the enterprise runs a great risk of labour trouble where the work-force does not distinguish between regular wages and profit-sharing.

5. Difficulty in estimating profits. Determination of true and correct profit is a basic problem which is faced by every business. This will mean that the profit-sharing system will face trouble as labour and capital have different ideas about the quantity of profits.

6. Hostility of trade unions. Even the trade-unions are hostile to the profit-sharing scheme because they think that this is a clever move on the part of the capitalists to divide their ranks.

7. Not acceptable to employers. Profit-sharing is also not fully acceptable to the employers because they consider profit to be reward for taking risk. Besides, they argue the labour does not share in loss.

8. High discontinuance rate. Flippo points out that one of the most important objections against profit-sharing is that it has a high discontinuance rate due to a variety of factors. This leads to frustration on the part of the employees.

What is an Ideal Profit-Sharing Plan?

This is a very important question as profit-sharing affects the following:

1. Efficiency of the worker.
2. Industrial peace, and
3. Democracy in industry.

Essential features. This can be ensured if profit-sharing plan encompasses the following activities and policies:

1. "The sharing of profit should be accompanied by a feeling of employee-employer partnership."
2. Cooperation can be obtained if the employees are educated in basic economics so that they may know what profits are.

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3. "Non-profit year should be provided for in advance." This can be done in the following ways:

(*i*) Deferred payment plan can be adopted.

(*ii*) Employees may be educated about the profitless year which is due to economic circumstances.

(*iii*) Good profit distribution in good years may ensure sympathetic employee reaction.

(*iv*) Regular wages and profits must be kept distinctly apart.

(*v*) Partnership attitude amongst all in the organisation must be stimulated.

Salary Administration

Pricing the job. Job evaluation suggests the worth of each job and thus wage rates can be fixed. Jobs of high value must command a high rate of pay. The principle is: the higher the evaluation, the higher the pay. However, the immediate problem is to determine what the rate of pay should be when the evaluation is a known amount. The job prices to be established must have (1) external consistency; and (2) internal consistency.

External consistency signifies that the rates paid in the enterprise are in line with the rates paid outside the enterprise. This can be achieved by securing the current wage rates in the area from different sources. Where necessary, a first hand survey may be made.

Internal consistency signifies that the rates paid are consistent with the job evaluations and the rates paid to employees in equivalent jobs done.

Job Grade Salary Range

The exact amount of the salary paid would depend upon the job grade into which a worker's job falls. For each grade there has to be a salary range. This range would be influenced by many factors, more important of which are: (1) Comparable range in other organisations in the area; (2) Total number of grades; and (3) The maximum number of years that an employee is expected to spend in that grade before getting promotion.

Salary Increases

Salary increases are a very delicate matter and should be given proper attention so that incentive to work is retained by the employees. Salary increases are of *four main types*: (*i*) length of service, (*ii*) merit, (*iii*) cost of living, and (*iv*) promotional.

Length of service increases are automatic and they take place usually once a year until a ceiling is reached. *Merit increases*

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are based on performance and reflect reward for good performance. *Cost of living increases* are based on the economic fluctuations. In our country, they are popularly called the Dearness Allowances. These cost of living increases are the result of inflation and are quite often the result of an agreement between the management and employees. *Promotional increases* are those which the employees get when they move from a lower job to a higher grade job.

Salary increases have been a controversial subject in our country since a fairly large number of workers is employed in the Government departments and undertakings. Promtional increases are based on the number of grades available in a given area in an organisation. Promotions from one category of job grades to another category is resented. Merit increases are not common place in Government departments or organisations except at the higher levels. Cost of living increases are also not satisfactory since in most cases, they do not ensure 100% neutralisation of the price rise. The private sector is more free in the matter of granting merit or promotional increases.

Maintaining Competitive Salaries

It is essential to maintain competitive salaries in the organisation for two main *reasons*: (*i*) to allow for minimum turnover, where turnover is caused by lower salaries; and (*ii*) to attract new entrants so as to keep the organisation going. It is thus essential to know what other firms in the region and similar offices are paying. Information about salaries etc. can be obtained in two ways:

(*i*) Information can be collected first hand by the organisation itself.

(*ii*) Information can also be obtained through other sources. *e.g.*, Government surveys, etc.

Employee Benefits

Employee benefits are fast becoming an important part of the compensation system of most firms. Costs of benefits for many of the firms are as high as 50 per cent of total payroll. Costs of benefits usually refer to *those non-taxable payments and / or services which are provided by the employers to their employees* in addition to basic pay for time worked.

Objects of Employee Benefits

Objects of employee benefits are: (*i*) to protect and maintain the *financial security* of the employee and his family; (*ii*) to protect and maintain the *health* of the employee and his family; (*iii*) to promote

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on-the-job *performance* of the employee; (*b*) to increase the *identification* of the employee with the organisation.

Types of Employee Benefits

Employee benefits can be grouped into the following major categories:

1. *Payments for time not worked*—pay for holidays, vacations, sick leave and other approved absences.
2. *Security and welfare plans*—provident fund, gratuity, pension, group insurance, etc.
3. *Employee services*—cafeteria subsidy, recreation facility, purchase discounts, company health facility, etc.
4. *Special compensation*—profit sharing[1], service awards, bonuses, savings plans.

Some of the above benefits which are often available to office employees in our country are as follows:

Holidays, Vacations and Sick Leave

These benefits vary from organisation to organisation. In the Government departments sick leave, maternity leave (for women employees), privilege leave, casual leave, sundays, and leave for festivals, etc. are granted with pay and other benefits. This is also by and large the practice in offices in the private sector.

In all organisations there is a limit on the amount of paid sick leave the employee may receive during a given year. In fact in most cases there is also an over-all limit on this during the course of total employment. Sick leave is not easy to control. There is always a tendency among some employees to see that they consume the sick leave by becoming "sick". Organisations can certainly reduce the number of sick leave if the employees are given the option to encash unused sick leave at the end of the year. Similarly casual leave, which is again not easy to control, can also be allowed to be encashed as suggested for the sick leave.

Insurance Plans

1. Group life insurance plans. Many organisations pay for group life insurance plans of their employees. The objective is two-fold: (*i*) A definite sum becomes payable to the dependents of the employee in case his death occurs during employment. (*ii*) A definite sum becomes

[1]Profit sharing has already been discussed.

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payable to the employee on his retirement.

2. Group health insurance plans. Health insurance plan is not a common feature in our country. Under this plan, an employee gets paid for the sickness expenses and hospitalisation costs.

3. Fidelity insurance. It is an insurance cover taken by an employer to protect himself against the dishonesty and fraud of the employee. This is taken in those cases where employees handle cash or goods and are thus capable of cheating or defrauding. While taking out such a policy it is essential for the employer to disclose every thing regarding the concerned employee and also no changes should be made in the terms of employment without informing the insurance company.

Retirement and Job Exit Benefits

There are many types of retirement and 'job exit'[1] benefits. All these benefits are derived by employees of the organised sector. A vast multitude of office employees may not thus get many of these benefits. These benefits are discussed as follows:

1. Pension. All Government offices have pension plans for their employees. Many business organisations have also pension plans for their employees. Pension plans are meant to reward employees for sustained and loyal service. Pension plans are meant for employees who retire in old age. The Government today also allows its employees to retire prematurely at the end of a given period of service, say, 15 years. Government employees also have the advantage of getting a raise in the pension amount from time to time keeping in view the rising prices. *Family pensions* are also allowed as per the Family Pension Scheme of 1971 as incorporated in the Provident Fund Act.

2. Provident fund. Provident Fund is one the oldest means of rewarding employees who retire or leave the organisation on the completion of a minimum years of service. The Employees' Provident Fund Act of 1952 can be made applicable by the Government to an organisation employing 20 or more persons. The employer and the employee make contributions to the Provident Fund at the rates prescribed in the Act. The payments to the employee or his nominees (in case of his death) are as per the regulations of the Act.

3. Gratuity. Gratuity is an important part of the terminal benefits,

[1]The term is being used in relation to all instances where an employee leaves the job and is allowed to take advantage of accummulated benefits like provident fund, etc.

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which an employee (or his nominee) receives either on retirement or retrenchment or on leaving his job. In the case of gratuity, a minimum qualifying service period is fixed on the completion of which the gratuity becomes payable to the employee. Gratuity, unlike provident fund, does not require any contribution by the employee and is a reward for long service. The gratuity is usually payable at the rate of a given days' wages for every completed year of service subject to a ceiling as to the number of years and amount. In the Government departments and semi-autonomous bodies like the universities gratuity is payable to the dependents at 12 times the yearly accrual in case of the death of a permanent employee who has put in, say, 3 to 5 years of service; and is thus a social security measure. The ceiling of gratuity differs from organisation to organisation and has to be based on the organisational policy of incentives and rewards.

Recreational Facilities

All large offices today have well-organised recreational facilities and contribute to their maintenance. Some organisations have leading players of indoor games and outdoor sports. Recreational facilities are a source to relieve monotony and also to give good sportsmen an opportunity to display their talent.

Canteen Facilities

Canteen facilities are now recognised a necessary part of the office, especially in large offices. The employer subsidises every aspect of the canteen facilities. The space is provided at almost free of cost; the furniture and crockery are bought by the emyloyer; and even the meals, snacks, tea and coffee served are subsidised. In many organisations free meals and tea are served to office employees of different levels.

Transport Facilities

Many organisations today provide subsidised transport facilities to its office employees (in fact to all employees). The type of transport facilities depends upon the nature of work and the status in the organisation. The managerial staff is often provided with staff cars and other personal transport vehicles while the lower staff is provided with public transport vehicles to and from place of work. In many organisations usually a transport maintenance allowance is given to higher grade employees. A loan is also advanced to buy a personal vehicle. By and large, however, most of the office employees are without transport facilities.

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EMPLOYEE WELFARE

The ILO resolution of 1947 defines employee or labour welfare as "such services, facilities and amenities as adequate canteens, rest and recreation facilities, arrangements of travel to and from work and for the accommodation of workers employed at a distance from their houses, and such other services, amenities and facilities as contribute to improve the conditions under which workers are employed."[1] Employee welfare activity can be divided into *two categories* on the basis of their location: (*i*) those which are provided within the precincts of the establishment; and (*ii*) those which are provided outside the establishment.

Amenities like those of canteens, toilets, arrangements of drinking water, rest rooms, libraries, safety or protective arrangements, etc., are to be provided within the precincts of the office. Besides, the employee welfare also includes the conditions of service such as provision for holidays, medical leave, suitable working hours and rest periods, protection from occupational hazards and so on. Many of these welfare activities are now controlled and enforced by the Government. The organisations have to appoint welfare officers under the Factories Act to look after employee welfare. Welfare arrangements outside the office include maternity benefit, family planning benefits, medical facilities, facilities for the education of children, club rooms, playgrounds, housing accommodation, transport to and from work, etc. It would be ideal to publish a *Staff Handbook* which contains details about the various aspects of employee welfare.

We have already considered some of these aspects in detail in the Chapter.

Welfare Arrangements

The size and number of welfare arrangements depend upon: (*i*) the legislative provisions, (*ii*) the financial resources of the undertaking, and (*iii*) the philosophy of management. In reality it is the third factor which can be considered as most vital. Whatever be the dictates of the financial situation, *welfare activity is a matter of philosophy*. Although the management may be handicapped by the financial factors, yet it may have the will to carry out certain welfare measures. The effect of the provision of welfare amenities is positive on the motivation and morale of the employees.

[1]Report of *National Commission on Labour*, 1969, Govt. of India, p. 112.

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Planning Welfare

In order to derive the best results out of the welfare arrangement, it is good to plan them properly. It would be worthwhile to consider the following *factors* in planning welfare arrangements for the office employees: (*i*) Over-emphasis on welfare work should not be at the cost of a fair salary structure. Employees should not be deprived of a fair salary. (*ii*) Imposition of welfare arrangements should be avoided. Excessive zeal makes employees suspicious. (*iii*) Morale of the employees is not solely dependent upon welfare measures. Thus over-attention to morale-building aspect of welfare must be avoided.

ABSENTEEISM

Absenteeism can be defined as *the title given to a condition that exists when a person fails to come to work when he is properly scheduled to work*. Hence it is a state where a worker does not report for work.

Rate of Absenteeism and Effects

For any undertaking, it is essential to arrive at the rate of absenteeism because it indicates the cost of such a phenomenon to the organisation. Even when the absent employee is not to be paid any wages yet it results in loss to an undertaking in more than one way. Work schedules are upset and delayed; confusion prevails; there are hasty transfers and payment of over-time; delivery dates are seldom met; and the direct money costs also mount up if absence is due to sickness.

Absenteeism rate can be described as the ratio of days lost to the total number of days for which employment was available. The rate can be expressed with the help of the following formula:

$$\text{Absenteeism} = \frac{\text{man-days lost}}{\text{man-days worked} + \text{man-days lost}}$$

It must be understood that there is always some irreducible minimum of absenteeism in every organisation. This is taken to be around three per cent to four per cent in advanced countries while in our country this is far too high.

Causes of Absenteeism

There are many causes of absenteeism in India, chief of which can be summed-up as follows:

1. Sickness. Average Indian worker is prone to greater sickness due to lower wages that prevail in industries. His food often lacks in nourishment which is necessary for such a person.

2. Migratory character of employees. Absenteeism also results due

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to migratory character of the employee force. Many workers, who belong to rural areas, work off and on in the industries and then switch over to agriculture during its busy seasons. This means absenteeism on a large-scale for a long period. However, the office worker has become much more stabilised over the last few decades because of the bad conditions of the employment market.

3. Sociological factors. Sociological factors in our country also cause absenteeism. With our religious rites and festivals, the labour comes under social pressures and absence results.

4. Miscellaneous factors. Then there are miscellaneous causes of absenteeism. Most of them relate to the individual workers concerned. They can be best described as psychological factors. Many workers absent themselves because they are misfits in the organisation and are unable to face rush-work, etc. Thus they avoid going to work.

Remedies of Absenteeism

It would be proper to remedy a situation in which there is more than the normal absenteeism. Following remedies can be suggested:

1. Better wages and working conditions. To ensure better attendance, it would be necessary to give good wages and provide better working environments so that the employee comes to work willingly.

2. Reward for regularity. It is essential that there should be adequate reward for regular attendance. As has already been pointed out, absence results in numerous disadvantages. It would be only fair to give incentive for regular attendance.

3. Selection and training. To meet the end that a worker should not be a misfit, it would be desirable to have proper selection and training of the work-force.

4. Placement. It is essential to have correct placement of the employee after he has gone through the selection process.

However, all the above remedies will fail in their objective so long as the sociological pressures are heavy. Over the years, there has been a welcome change in our country. As the labour force becomes skilled, it receives higher wages and therefore absence gets cut. Every office should study and analyse the absenteeism with reference to the following to help in its removal: (*i*) *Name of the employee.* Usually a few workers absent themselves more than others. (*ii*) *Reasons.* When employees absent they give certain reasons which can be analysed and corrective action can be taken. (*iii*) *Date.* Many employees absent themselves on Mondays, Saturdays and days following the pay-day. This indicates lack of feeling of responsibility. (*iv*) *Age and sex.* Women generally absent themselves more frequently and similarly emoloyees

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in certain age groups. (*v*) *Conditions of work.* Many employees absent themselves due to unsatisfactory working conditions, etc. It would be only proper to provide better working conditions.

EMPLOYEE TURNOVER

Employee turnover "*refers to the movement into and out of an organisation by the work-force.*" It is the index of the stability of an organisation. An excessive labour turnover is expensive and undesirable. *Following costs get involved when an employee leaves a firm:*

1. *Hiring costs.*
2. *Training costs.*
3. The *pay of the learner* is more than what he produces.
4. *Higher accident rate* of new employees.
5. *Loss of production* during the period when an old employee leaves and a new employee joins.
6. *Production equipment is never fully utilised* till the new worker is adequately trained.
7. *Scrap and waste rates are higher* for new employees.
8. *Over-time payments* to meet delivery dates.

In the USA, it has been estimated by the American Management Association that the turnover costs in the late fifties were $500 per employee.[1] In our country too these costs are considerable although properly surveyed analysis is lacking.

Rate of Employee Turnover

The employee turnover rate can be expressed by a number of formulae. However, when comparisons are made between two firms, it would be essential to apply the same formula for measurements and analysis. Various formula relate to accessions, separations, replacements, and average work-force. Suppose our work-force consists of 1,000 employees during which time there have been 20 accessions, and 30 separations. The accession rate will be $20/1000 \times 100 = 2\%$; the separation rate will be $30/1000 \times 100 = 3\%$ and the replacement rate will be $20/1000 \times 100 = 2\%$. The replacement rate is always smaller of the two figures.

Causes of Employee Turnover

The reasons for employee turnover are summarised as follows:

1. **Low wages and salaries.** Working force tends to move from low-

[1] Flippo, *op. cit.*, p. 121.

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wage organisation to high-wage organisation.

2. Poor working conditions. Besides wages, working conditions also affect the turnover rate. It is bound to be higher in undertakings which have poor working conditions.

3. Quality of supervision. If the quality of supervision in the office is low, the workers are dissatisfied and they leave the organisation.

4. Factors aiding mobility. There are certain social and economic factors which aid mobility.

5. Bad promotion policy. Many organisations do not promote employees on merit and work; and thus many workers feel resentful and leave the organisation.

6. Personal and psychological factors. Personal factors also influence the turnover rate. Certain employees are mentally more stable and stick to their jobs more resolutely than others.

Remedies of Employee Turnover

As has already been pointed out, excessive turnover is costly to an organisation. It is, therefore, necessary to avoid excessive turnover. Following remedies are suggested:

1. Improvement in wage structure. The firm would do well to improve the wage structure in a manner that every employee receives compensation according to his effort.

2. Improvement of working conditions and environments. Improvement in working conditions and environments leads to lower turnover rate. Proper layout, adequate housing, schools, hospitals, etc., help an employee to stabilise.

3. Proper selection and training. These two factors also eliminate the recruitment of workers who are not suitable for the jobs for which recruitment is made.

4. Proper promotion policy. Proper promotion policy must be in existence otherwise workers would leave. Promotion policy should be well understood and should be based on seniority and merit.

5. Improvement in supervision. A good supervisor is often a source of stability to his fellow workers. Therefore, it is essential to see that proper supervisors are recruited and they are trained adequately.

OFFICE TRADE UNIONS[1]

Trade unions are becoming an important force in the economic, political and social life of the country. To begin with, trade unions

[1] Trade unions are governed by the **Trade Unions Act, 1926.**

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were the organisations which represented the industrial workers. The office employees, especially in the industrial sector, rarely formed themselves into trade unions because of the following *reasons*:

(*i*) They *represented a small fraction* of the total work-force in the industry.

(*ii*) They were *identified with management* since they were located close to the top management. Possibly they thought that in this way they could make personal gains by rising in the organisation.

(*iii*) Smaller organisations (consequently smaller number of employees in each organisation) and scatteredness of workers all over the length and breadth of the large country restricted the growth of office trade unions.

(*iv*) Workers in general were never considered another dimension in the economic set up of this country before independence.

(*v*) The large educated unemployed work-force and the economic pressure under which the total employed work-force operates certainly inhibits the growth of unionism in the office in our country.

Office Trade Union Defined

It can be defined as *an organisation of office workers formed to promote, protect, and improve through collective action, the social, economic and political interests of its members.* The dominant interest of a trade union is economic in this sphere, desires and demands for improved compensations, working conditions and hours of work are the most important. The need for a union is basic to meet the demands of workers in modern industry or government. An individual worker is ineffective *vis-a-vis* his employer. This does not mean that if an organisation provides more-than-fair wages, hours of work and working conditions and has the most complete and effective human relations and integration programme, it does not require a trade union. It does need it because there is no way other than through organised and collective force that an employee (whether in the office or factory) can feel independent enough to challenge the actions of his formal superiors in organisation. Flippo sums up this situation in these words: "Perfect management cannot give this desired sense of freedom and importance .... The ability to offer freedom from actual or potential arbitrary management decrees is a primary source of strength for the labour union."

Types of Trade Unions

They can be classified as follows: (*i*) *Registered and unregistered.* It is a registered union where it is registered under the Trade Unions

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Act. (*ii*) *Recognised and unrecognised.* A recognised union is one which has been recognised by the employer to represent the workers in any negotiations. (*iii*) *Vertical or industrial.* It is a union which includes employees, belonging to same industry or similar activities, *e.g.*, the union of the employees of General Insurance or Life Insurance Corporation or banks, etc. (*iv*) *Horizontal or craft.* It is a union which cuts across many firms, undertakings or industries, and is formed, by workers pursuing similar occupation, *e.g.*, various associations of government officers working in different departments and undertakings.

Objects and Functions of Office Trade Unions

In every society it has been recognised that in discharging the basic functions, "unions have to operate on many fronts: social, economic, civic and political".[1] This reflects the objects which are to be pursued by trade unions in general, whatever be their form or nature. They pursue the following objects.[2]

1. **Better wages.** On the economic front, the trade union must try to secure better salaries and fringe benefits for the employees keeping in view the cost of living and living standards in the country.

2. **Bonus.** The union must also pursue the objective of sharing in the prosperity of the organisation or industry by asking for bonus.

3. **Better working conditions.** This is another objective which aims at securing leave with pay, shorter working hours, social security and different welfare facilities.

4. **Permanent employment.** To secure permanency in employment and force the employers not to retrench the employees on one pretext or the other.

5. **Social and educational welfare.** In order to work for the social and other development of the workers, a trade union may promote educational facilities and group benefit schemes.

6. **Safeguarding the interests of industry.** This is another objective which is pursued by the employees in association with the employers.

7. **Create fearlessness.** Creation of fearlessness and class consciousness is another objective. In fact, it is today one of the basic objectives.

8. **To formulate stand on social and economic objectives of the community.** Country as a whole, and participate in activities to make their viewpoint heard, can also be described as a major objective.

[1]Report of the National Commission on Labour (1969), *op. cit.*
[2]Report of the National Commission on Labour (1969), *op. cit.*

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9. Watching diligently. The *implementation of the policies on social and economic objectives* of the community/country is also an objective of the unions.

10. The government must consult the unions. In the matter of framing of labour legislation, especially that affecting the office employees.

Office Union-Management Relations

Workers and employers must be recognised as the two sides of the same coin, so much so that if one is defaced, the other loses its identity. Office union must be considered as an important part of the total human relations in the office. The union, on its part, must consider the interests of organisation and maintenance of efficiency as of supreme importance. In order to make office union, an effective tool of human relations, the following suggestions are made:

1. *Unions should not be avoided.* There is also no need for managements to be paternalistic. This would only complicate the affairs, especially in the case of office employee who is well-educated.

2. *Unions should not be fought.* It is necessary to work in harmony with the union. As far as possible, the union-management relations must centre on how best to solve problems. The union must be recognised as an excellent channel of communication between the management and the workers.

3. *Unions must form a part of the grievance procedure.* The employees union must be considered an important participant in the grievance procedure so that problems are solved without acrimony.

4. *The role of the supervisor vis-a-vis the unions must be well-defined.* Supervisors today find themselves in a difficult situation vis-a-vis the employees who work under them. Their authority is often challenged.

5. *The union on its part must consider Management to be a valid institution*, whose major objective is to improve upon the performance and economic well-being of every worker.

Associations or Unions of Executives and Managers

During the last few years, associations (or unions) of officers or executives have emerged on the Indian office scene. The reasons for their emergence are quite obvious. This group of employees is not in the workmen category as defined by the various state and central legislation. They also do not form a part of the top management. They feel that the higher level management and the workmen are the only categories of employees who have benefited most due to

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industrialism during the last two decades or so. Insurance Corporation, banks, other public sector undertakings and government offices today have officers' associations. On the other hand, officers and managers in private sector companies have hardly any strong formal association. Their associations, if any, are informal, more in the nature of clubs.

The lower and middle managers in the public sector appear to be little more secure of their jobs. They are able to have collective bargaining with the top management. Their associations are able to put forth their viewpoint rather boldly and able to secure concessions. Even the clerical employees have a sneaking sympathy for them since many of them, under their union agreements, are bound to reach the supervisory and managerial cadres sooner or later. Besides, some of them are working in positions, where stoppage of work would cause dislocation or disruption of work. *e.g.*, in the banks.

The last few years have seen increasing economic stress and physical hardships for the managerial staff. The unchecked inflation, *gheraos* and *bandhs* have certainly affected the morale of the lower and middle managers in the offices (as well as factories). Considering that the interests of most employees are common, one solution can be that these people become part of the office trade union.

Another aspect can be that the top management must realise that the lower and middle managers have to bear the main brunt of the anger of office employees. Besides, they are a small minority in any office and are unable to organise themselves against the onslaught of top management's authority. The top management should adopt an attitude of greater flexibility and understanding. It would be better, therefore, to grant them the increased economic and other benefits in the same way as has been done for the unionised lower-grade employees. In this way even their personal status would be kept intact.

Dissantisfactio, Complaints, and Grievances

There are three stages to a grievance, which are as follows:

Dissatisfaction. The first stage is that of dissatisfaction. It can be defined as *anything that disturbs an employee, whether expressed in words or not, e.g.*, a bad cooling arrangement in the office during the hotter part of the year.

Complaint. At the second stage the dissatisfaction changes into complaint. It can be defined as *a written or spoken dissatisfaction, brought to the attention of the supervisor or any immediate superior.* Possibly the complainant may not give a specific cause for the dissatis-

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faction. For example, the complaint may be about a fellow-worker who disturbs others at work, bad paper for typing, the water cooler not working, etc.

Grievance. From management's viewpoint, a grievance is *a complaint which has been formally presented in writing, to a management representative or a trade union official.*

Grievance Procedure

It is necessary to provide a grievance procedure which brings prompt and fair remedial action. It is often found that repressed and unspoken complaint may be very damaging to the morale and employee productivity. A good and efficient procedure provides an upward channel of communication and helps promote harmony in the office. In cooperation with the management, the office trade union can certainly devise an orderly and efficient grievance procedure.

Essentials of a good grievance procedure. The grievance procedure should have the following essential features to do its work successfully. A lengthy and complicated procedure may affect employee morale alround.

(*i*) *Associative.* The procedure must associate representatives of employees so that they better understand the nature of the complaints and the possible solution that may be found.

(*ii*) *Demonstrably fair.* It should be fair to the complainant. If the complaint is against the supervisor, he should accept it at some thing normal.

(*iii*) *Should not circumvent the line.* At no time an effort should be made to circumvent or ignore the line. The supervisor should be very much in the picture. Rather the supervisor should be encouraged to counsel the employee. The employee on his part should understand that indiscipline and insubordination cannot be tolerated. However, where the supervisor is in the wrong, he should be made to see reason and even express regret without compromising his honour and dignity. The higher management can definitely play a decisive role in this matter.

(*iv*) *Simple and clear-cut.* The procedure should be simple so that every new employee understands it with ease. Although the vast majority of office employees is well-educated, yet the procedure should be very simple so that the less-educated employees also understand it with ease. The procedure should be clear-cut stating *what* is to be done, *when* and by *whom.*

(*v*) *Should function promptly.* Justice delayed is justice denied is a well-known saying. All notional and actual complaints should be

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dealt with promptly. The procedure should be time-bound and all complaints should be disposed of in a specified time. If there are so many levels at which grievances are settled, then for each level a time-limit has to be set during which the complaint would be either settled or forwarded to the next higher level.

(*vi*) *Consistent adherence.* The procedure should be explained to employees and consistently adhered to. The procedure must be the same for each employee for similar complaint, otherwise the procedure loses its sanctity and the agreements and decisions lose their force. Consistency ensures cooperation at all levels at all times.

(*vii*) *Notice of changes.* If changes are made in the grievance procedure, the employees should be given due notice of these changes. In fact changes should be made through consultations and mutual consent so that their implentation is easy.

(*viii*) *Conformity with existing legislation.* The grievance procedure must conform to existing legal provisions in force. Changes in law should be quickly taken note of.

Outline of the Formal Grievance Procedure

Taking existing legislation into account, following formal grievance procedure is suggested for office employees:

1. Constituting grievance committee. A grievance committee consisting of two representatives of management plus a Union representative and the union departmental representative of the Department should be formed. Of the two representatives of the management, one can be the office manager.

Where there is no recognised union of office employees, it is suggested to form the *Office Committee* in the office on the pattern of the Works Committee in the factory. This Office Committee should have 4 to 6 representatives, including the departmental head, and the first-line supervisor or the official who dealt with the complaint in the first instance. Other members can be the Office Manager and one or two from the higher management in the organisation.

2. Complaint to the first-line supervisor. The first step in the complaint procedure is when the dissatisfied employee complains to the first-level supervisor orally. The supervisor tries to settle the complaint at his level. Here the employee can take the help of a representative of the union. If the supervisor is unable to settle the complaint either he enjoys no authority to settle a particular dispute or considers complaint to be unreasonable, the next step is to be taken.

3. Appeal to higher management. At this stage the complaint becomes a grievance. It assumes a written form and goes to the higher

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management, usually the departmental head. In the case of medium-sized offices, the grievance is put before the office manager. At this stage, the office union is well-represented through an official of the union, maybe the president of the union.

4. Reaching the top management. Where the grievance is not settled at the "higher" management stage, the unsettled grievance reaches the *Grievance Committee* appointed at the highest level as indicated in the beginning of the grievance procedure. Here again an official of the union, usually the President, also forms a part of the redressal procedure. Besides, where a grievance has wider repercussions, a representative of the union representing the whole industry may also form a part of grievance settlement.

5. Arbitration. Quite often the grievance may not be settled even at the level of the grievance committee. In hat case matter may be settled through arbitration. Usually at thi stage, the government may also intervene, if the grievance affects the working of the entire organisation or industry.

Fatigue

Fatigue has been considered in relation to the furniture and working environments in chapters on these subjects. It should form a part of the work measurement problem as well. Here we consider fatigue as related to the office worker. Fatigue in the office has not attracted much attention even in the industrially advanced countries. In our own country, hardly anything has been done in this matter.

What is Fatigue?

In simple words, fatigue can be described as lessened power of response to stimulus resulting from activity. It is, therefore, *a state of weariness of mind and body, i.e.*, it is a state of tiredness. As a man works, his muscles get tired, his mental faculties get affected and a state of weariness sets in.

Types of fatigue in the office. Before we classify fatigue in the office, it must be understood that increasing mechanisation has started turning the office into a shop-floor. This is bound to affect the office worker and his reflexes. Simply speaking fatigue can be of the following *two* types:

1. Physical and muscular fatigue.
2. Mental fatigue and monotony.

Let us consider them briefly.

1. Physical and muscular fatigue. Physical and muscular fatigue in the office can be caused by a number of factors, more important of

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which are: (*i*) Constant working on machines like typewriters, calculators, cash registers, filing cabinets, etc. can cause a lot of physical fatigue and tire the muscles of the body. (*ii*) Constant sitting in the work-chair can cause physical tiredness. The legs and back stiffen and blood circulation gets affected. (*iii*) Bad lighting tires the eye muscles. (*iv*) Bad ventilation, excess heat or cold and so many other factors may cause much discomfort to body.

The physical fatigue also affects mental alertness adversely. A weary body cannot have a fresh mind.

2. Mental fatigue or monotony. Mental fatigue can be identified with the state of mind of a person. When a worker works on a job continuously, which is of a repetitive nature, he starts having a feeling of tiredness. This *feeling of tiredness can be described as monotony.* The worker becomes listless and uninterested. His body muscles are not tired but his mental faculties are much less active and as a result of this, the coordination between mind and body is less. It does not imply that the employee does not know his job well or he is not attached to his work. He knows his job well and likes his job. Since he works on the job continuously, which is of repetitive character (as most office work is), his mind becomes static and indifferent to the work in hand. It is possible that mental fatigue may be caused by the strain of *emotional conflicts*.

Monotony and boredom. Monotony should not be confused with boredom. Boredom implies emotional dislike of work while monotony does not involve any such dislike of the work. When a worker has a feeling of fatality in continuing his work, the boredom appears. Boredom becomes evident when the worker finds that his work does not present any challenge and as a result of this he loses interest in the accomplishment of task in hand. Although monotony and boredom are different, yet both affect productivity adversely.

Effects of Fatigue

Both types of fatigue have the following effects:

1. The direct impact of these two is on *productivity*. It gets lowered.
2. *Morale* is also affected adversely. Lowered morale is reflected in *two* ways: (*i*) There may be *inarticulate unrest* which results in loitering around of the worker who also expresses himself publicly against organisation and his job. (*ii*) There can also be *articulate unrest* which takes the shape of oral or written complaints, disputes or arguments.

Measuring Fatigue

It is very difficult to measure fatigue in the case of office workers.

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An effort should, however, be made in this direction. The following suggestions are made in this regard:

1. Since many large-scale organisations have mechanised office work and office systems are similarly geared, factory-oriented approach can be adopted and fatigue allowances can be made accordingly.

2. As an alternative, the office manager can have controlled experiments. The work output of a group of office employees can be compared with a similar group in another office and working in different environments.

3. On the fatigue morale relationship, an effort should be made how the two interact with each other. This has to be considered with reference to a number of factors, such as quality of supervision, environment, quality of machines and equipment and a number of other known and unknown factors.

How to Minimise Fatigue?

We have stated that fatigue lowers morale as well as productivity. Therefore it is the task of management to minimise fatigue although its complete removal is impossible. Following suggestions are made for minimising fatigue in the office.

1. *Proper rest pauses.* It is necessary to provide proper rest pauses and breaks. They help in reducing physical and mental fatigue. The rest pauses must be scientifically laid down on the basis of time and motion study. A little rest normally refreshes a worker.

2. *Providing better working environments.*[1] Proper working environments reduce tension and fatigue. Proper ventilation, lighting, colour conditioning, noise control, etc. all help to reduce fatigue. Also the right types of chairs and desks reduce the strain on the body of the office employee.

3. *Proper rating and promotion.* It is a psychological remedy. It is essential to rate different jobs properly and do proper placement. Besides, proper policy of incentives and promotion must be introduced to keep up the motivation and morale.

4. *Early removal of complaints.* Another psychological remedy is early removal of complaints regarding environments, furniture and faulty office machines, etc.

SUGGESTION SYSTEMS

Suggestion systems are atleast a century old in the industrially advanced

[1]See also Chapter 7.

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countries. In our own country, it too has a long history. To begin with, suggestion systems were instituted in the factory but now they have been extended to the office as well.

Types of Suggestion Systems

Broadly speaking, there are two types of suggestion systems, viz., formal suggestion systems and informal suggestion systems. A *formal suggestion system* can be defined as a suggestion system which is a part of the formal organisational process. It is established on the basis of an agreement between the employees (employees union) and the management. On the other hand, an *informal suggestion system* is one which operates because the management thinks it desirable that the employees should be given due opportunity to put forth their suggestions and views.

Aims of a suggestion system. The aims of a suggestion system, whether formal or informal, can be one or more of the following:

1. *Cost reduction.* This is an important aim of a suggestion system. The employees are encouraged to make suggestions to reduce costs and increase profitability. This has been described as the tangible aim.

2. *Improvement in systems and procedures.* This is another aim. The employees make suggestions for the improvement of systems and procedures to cut down delays and promote efficiency.

3. *Improvement in performance.* A suggestion system also aims at improving managerial performance. This helps to recognise the contribution that an employee can make in improving managerial performance.

Principles of a Suggestion System

In order to obtain the aims and objectives as stated above, it would be essential for a suggestion system to satisfy certain fundamental principles, which are summarised as follows:

1. Simplicity. The suggestion system has to be simple so that it is understood clearly by all. Rules and rewards are known to all.

2. Promptness. The suggestion system should have in-built promptness, both in terms of processing of a suggestion and the follow-up action. If suggestions are rejected, an explanation should be given.

3. Reward and publicity. Good suggestions must be recognised. Suitable rewards can be given and also due publicity should be given to the "contributor."

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4. Responsibility. It is essential to define the agency (individual executive or committee) responsible for the receipt of suggestions and their screening and acceptance.

5. Top management involvement. The top management must be keenly involved in the process. In other words, the top management must have faith in the suggestion system and should recognise it as a useful tool in human relations, and management processes in general.

6. Integration. The suggestion system must be integrated into the management systems so that the system operates smoothly and without conflict.

A suggestion system should be planned keeping in view the above principles so that the best results are obtained.

Operating a Suggestion System

Organising suggestion system. The first task of top management is to organise the suggestion system. Broadly speaking, there are *two* alternatives for organising a suggestion system. One is that an executive is appointed to whom suggestions are made. He processes them and accepts those which are worth acceptance. The success or failure of the suggestion system depends upon the quality and judgment of a *single individual*. Considering the complexities of modern organisations and limitations of an average individual, the suggestion system may not prove useful. Rather it may generate resentment.

The other alternative is to appoint a *committee* for the purpose. The committee for suggestion system relating to the office should consist of the following: (*i*) At least one member of the top management team; (*ii*) Office Manager (by whatever name called); (*iii*) Manager O. & M.; (*iv*) Executive incharge of data processing, where data processing is a distinct and important activity; (*v*) Two to three departmental managers or executives; and (*vi*) One or two representatives of workers. The committee should be chaired by a member of the top management team and the *Office Manager* may be the secretary. It is suggested the members as given in (*v*) above should be by rotation so that the vested interests are not created. Besides, rotation gives a feeling of fairness. Further, sometimes it may become necessary to associate the manager from a department if suggestion pertains to his department.

Suggestion System in Practice

Once the organisation for the suggestion system has been defined and formed, the suggestion system has to be put into practice. The

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following outline is recommended for operating the suggestion system:

1. All the employees must be informed that a suggestion system exists. Further the way it is to operate must also be communicated.

2. At the next stage, suggestions are to be received.

3. Suggestions received are discussed and sample-tested as to their effects and benefits. There is one peculiar feature of the office that human element still dominates. Thus testing may have to be over a longer period than that in the factory. Besides, one has to face human resistance.

4. If the testing proves beneficial, the suggestion may be adopted either in its original form or modified form.

5. Reward and publicity should be prompt, which should follow acceptance.

6. Before putting suggestion into practice, it would also be advisable to make necessary changes in systems and procedures so that suggestion adopted gives the best results.

7. Lastly, it would be advisable to follow-up suggestion implementation and actual benefits evaluated.

QUESTIONS

1. Explain fully a wage system that gives credit to efficiency.

2. Explain the characteristics of an incentive plan for office employees. Do you think there are any limitations of incentive plans for the office workers?

3. You are the Controller (Office and Personnel) in a medium-sized organisation. For some time past, you have been feeling the need for the installation of a wage incentive plan for the Office. Prepare a siutable incentive plan for implementation.

4. Write a critical note on the Scanlon Plan for the office.

5. What do you understand by employee profit-sharing? What are its types? Discuss its merits and demerits.

6. You are the Sr. Manager Administration of a large export house employing 200 persons in the office. How would you price jobs and fix up salary ranges for the employees?

7. Write a critical note on salary increases.

8. What are employee benefits? Explain some important employee benefits available to office employees in the country.

9. Write notes on the following: (*a*) Insurance plans for employees; (*b*) Retirement and job exit benefits; and (*c*) Recreational and canteen facilities.

10. What is meant by employee welfare? How would you plan employee welfare?

11. You are the departmental head of a department responsible for personnel, and general administration function in a large office. The General Manager (Administration) wants you to study and analyse the problem of absenteeism in the office. You are further directed to make suitable suggestions to reduce absenteeism in the office. Prepare a suitable draft for the purpose.

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12. What are the possible causes of "Labour Turnover"? How could these causes be ascertained? State the remedial action that could be undertaken.

13. "Office trade unions are becoming popular day by day." Why?

14. What is office trade union? What are its objects and functions?

15. You are the Managing Director of a growing medium-sized company. You feel that the growth has brought about an increase in the union activity. What you think should be your attitude towards the office union and why?

16. Write a critical note on the union for officers or executives.

17. What do you understand by grievance procedure? Point out the steps you, as a manager, will take in handling grievance, in your office. (*Co. Secy Prel. 80.*)

18. Distingiush between dissatisfaction, complaint and grievance. What are the essentials of a good grievance procedure?

19. Explain the different kinds of fatigue. How is fatigue caused? What are its effects? State what action would you take to minimise fatigue in the office?

20. You are the Office Manager of a large organisation. Your M.D. wants you to prepare detailed report on a suggestion system in the office. Prepare it.

21. Discuss the objects and principles of a suggestion system in the office. Describe the working of a suggestion system in the office.

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Gandhi Memorial College Of Education Bantalab Jammu

NAME INDEX

Allen, Louis A., 35, 39, 46, 50, 53-54, 301
Allwyn, 182
American Management Association, 45
American Society of Training Directors, 20
Anthony, R.N., 19
Athreya, N.H., 295

Barnard, Chester I., 20, 24, 51
Batty, J., 45
Bharat Ribbon and Carbon, 357
Bradma India Ltd., 245
Brech, E.F.L., 8, 356, 382, 493
Brigham, L., 356

Companies Act, 5

Dale, Ernest, 56
Delhi Cloth Mill (also DCM), 13, 255
Denyer, J C., 1, 4, 110, 122, 168, 193, 210, 264, 500
Drucker, Peter F., 15, 58, 73, 145-6

Economist, 273
Europe, also W. Europe, 94, 120, 142, 337, 398

Fayol, H., 17
Flippo, Edwin B., 493, 496, 501, 514
Follet, Mary Parker, 22

General Motors, 60
Gestetner, 226-7, 229, 357
Gilbreth, Frank B. and Lilian B., 379
Godrej, 182
Griswold, Danny, 8

Hamilton, Sir Ian, 45
Handy, Charles, 273
HMSO (London), 399
India, 119, 459
Industrial Finance Corporation of India, 464
Institute of Administrative Management (England), 4, 25, 500

Japan, 142, 337, 379
Jucius, Michael J., 160

Keeling, B. Lewis, 29, 78, 122, 311
Khira, 182
Koontz, Harold, 17, 20, 21, 25, 32-3, 35, 38, 42, 50, 52, 54, 55, 59, 60, 298
Kores India, 357
Leffingwell, W.H. and Robinson, E.M , 76, 166, 356, 369, 395

Logan, James P., 57
Life Insurance Corporation of India, 464
Littlefield, C L., and others, 28, 65, 74, 122, 166-7, 382, 395, 434
Lundy, 31

Malinowski, 25
McRae, T.W., 264
Mills, G., and Standingford, O , 4
Montgomery, Field Marshal, 24
Mooney, J.D., 42, 54
Moore, Franklin G , 81
Myers, H., 515

Neuner, John W., 29, 78, 122, 311
Newman, William H., 20, 51, 54, 57, 158

O'Donnel, Cyril, 17, 20, 21, 25, 32-33, 35, 38, 42, 50, 52, 54, 55, 59, 60, 298

P.N. Ganesan (P) Ltd., 245

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Gandhi Memorial College Of Education Bantalab Jammu

Place, Irene, Hicks, 41

Redfield, James R., 17
Reserve Bank of India, 464
Roneo, 226

Scanlon, Joseph, N. 530
Sheldon, Oliver, 28
Shourie, 226
Spriegel, W.R., and
Lansburgh, R H., 28
Spriegel, W.R., and other, 152
Standard Oil Company of California, 53
Summer, Charles E., 20, 295
Sweden, 146

Taylor, F.W., 40, 376
Televista, 255
Terry, George, R., 1, 4, 16, 65, 75, 90, 108, 145, 400, 414

UK, also England, 28
Urwick, L., 19, 45, 72
USA (also America), 28, 29, 94, 119, 120, 142, 146, 329, 337, 398, 411, 431, 501

Weston, 255
White, K.K., 45

Yoder, Dale, 509, 510; 512

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Gandhi Memorial College Of Education Bantalab Jammu

SUBJECT INDEX

Absenteeism, 543-5
causes, 543
defined, 543
rate, 543
remedies, 544
removal, 544-5
Accommodation, office
cost, 89-90
securing, 86-7
shape, 88
size, 87-8
Accounting machines, importance, 250
types, 250-1
Action research, 419-21
Adding machines, 251-4
advantages, 252-3
disadvantages, 253
Addressing machines, 245-8
advantages, 247-8
disadvantages, 248
special attachments, 247
types, 245-7
uses, 248
Administrative office manager, *see* Office Manager
Administrative office management, *see* Office Management
Air coolers, 118-9
Air-conditioning, 119
Audit, office
basic areas, 433
defined, 431
and management audit, 433
and operational audit 433
stages, 431-2
steps, 432-3
Authority, defined, 50
limits, 52-3
source, 51-52
types, 51

Budgetary control, 414-9
cost analysis, 418-9
kinds, 415-6
limitations, 415
necessity, 415
office budgets, 414
preparation, 417-8
principles, 416-7
Building, *see* Office building

Calculators/Calculating Machines
advantages, 255
automatic, 257
choice, 258
electronic, 257
importance, 255
key-driven, 256
printing, 256
rotary, 256
Card index
loose, 194-6
visible, 196-7
Cash registers, 273-5
Cheque writer machines, 278
Chronological classification, 146
Coin handling machines, 239
Classification, filing
alphabetical, 172
chronological, 175
combinations, 175
factors, 176
geographical, 174
numerical, 172-3
subject, 174-5
Cleanliness, 120-1
Colour conditioning
factors, 123-4
objectives, 122-3
Committees (organisation)
advantages and disadvantages, 48-9
defined, 46
making successful, 49
objects, 47

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Gandhi Memorial College Of Education Bantalab Jammu

types, 47
when to use, 47-8
Communication(s), defined, 297
external, 314-9
internal, 297-314
recent advances in the means of 318-319
Communication, internal
characteristics, 298-9
choice of method, 314
oral, 300-07
types, 260-61
written, 307-14
Communication, external
choice, 318
defined, 314
methods, 315-8
objectives, 275
oral, 314-5
written, 317-8
Complaints and grievances, 547-50
Computers, electronic
advantages and disadvantages, 263-4
at work, 269-70
choice, 270-1
configuration, 269
functions and uses, 264-6
hardware and software, 269
programming, 268
recent advances, 272-3
summary, 271-2
types, 266-67
Concertina files, 178
Continuous stationery, 292-4
Control or Controlling
forms, 287-9
function, 20-21
function of supervisor, 147-8
internal noise, 116-7
production, 382-7
quality, 387-92
reports, 443-4
stationery and supplies, 26 354-5, 369-72
Conveyors, 310-1
Copying, choice of method, 235-6
Correspondence, office, 321-33
centralising, 322-3
decentralised, 323-4
defined, 321
drafting, 325-30
dictating letters, 328-30
form letters, 326-7
form or standard paragraph, 327-8
organising, 320-1
practices, 324
production, 324-5
typing and duplicating, 330-3
Cost reduction or cost saving, 393-421
areas, 395-6
dangers, 396-7
importance, 393-4
methods, 397-419
organisation for, 396
programme, 395
wasteful expenditure, 395

Decentralisation of authority
advantages, 58-9
decentralisation of processes, 57
defined, 56
factors, 57-8
limitations, 59
need, 56-7
versus centralisation, 59-60
Decoration, interior (office), 122-5
Delegation of authority, 53-56
clarity, 55
defined, 54
elements, 54-5
importance, 54
principles, 55-6
Departments, office, 135-43
accounts, 137-8
cash, 138
despatch, 141-2
E.D.P., 143
export, 140-1
factors, 135
factory, 139-40
general office, 135-7
import, 141
O and M, 142
personnel, 138-9
purchase, 139
sales, 140
transport, 142

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Gandhi Memorial College Of Education Bantalab Jammu

wages, 138
Departmentation
basis, 62
company office, 61-2
defined, 60
need, 61
Despatching, 347-51
Diagrams, 478-84
Dictating machines, 306-7
Duplicating, methods and machines
choice, 235-6
electronic stencil, 229-30
essentials, 223-4
gelatine, 224
hectograph, 224-6
letter press printing, 230-1
multigraph, 230
offset lithography 231-5,
stencils, 226-30
ticket and label printing, 231
Electronic stencil 229-30
Electrostatic photocopying 240-2

Employees, *see* Personnel Office
Employee profit-sharing, 534-7
arguments, against and in favour, 534-6
defined, 534
types, 534
ideal, 536
Employee turnover
causes, 545
costs, 545
defined, 545
rate, 545
remedies, 546
Employee welfare, 542-3
arrangements, 542
categories, 542
defined, 542
planning, 543
Equipment, 207
Equipment, filing
lateral, 184
openshelf, 185
suspension, 183
vertical, 181-2
Error report, 390

Fatigue, 550-2
Filing
arch lever, 180
advantages, 169
box files, 178
cabinets, 181-2
centralised, 188-9
characteristics, 169-70
classification, 171-76
concertina, 178
decentralised, 189-91
defined, 168
folders, 181
horizontal, 179-80
information about documents, 170
lateral; 184-5
open shelf, 185-6
old methods, 176-9
pigeon-hole, 177-8
press copy book, 179
routine, 202-4
signals, 199-200
vertical 181-2
visible cards, 196-7
Fire precautions, 125-6
Flow charts, 79-81
Flow of work
analysis, 78
charts, 78-81
defined, 76
problems, 76-77
straight line, 77-8
Forms
advantages, 281
defined, 280
E.D.P., 286-7
manifold, 294-5
need and purpose, 280-1
number to be produced, 289
quantity to be ordered, 289-90
rational use, 295-6
sets; 290-4
types, 280
Forms design,282-7
Forms management and control
objects, 288
process, 287-8
steps, 288-9

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Gandhi Memorial College Of Education Bantalab Jammu

Functional organisation, 40-4
Furniture, office, 207-13
chairs, desks, tables, 210-13
designing chairs and desks, 212
importance and factors, 207-8
modular or system, 212-3
types, 208-13
wooden, 213

General office, 135-7
sections, 136-7
Geographical classification, 174
Graphs, 487-90

Heating; office, 119-20
Horizontal filing 179-80
advantages, 180
defined; 179
drawbacks, 180
types, 179-80
Human relations
approach, 493-4
Humidity, 118

Information Management, *see* Office Management
Intercom, 304-5
Incentive plans; 529-33
Indexing, advantages, 192-3
defined, 192
essentials, 192
object, 192
selecting a system, 201
systems, 192-9
Induction, 505
Interviewing, 503-4

Job analysis, 497-8
Job description, 498-9
Job evaluation, 506-9
definition and purpose, 506
factors, 507
limitations, 508-9
systems, 506-7
usefulness, 507-8
Job grading, 500
Job specifications, 499

Lateral filing, 184-5
Layout, office
advantages of good layout, 93-4
defined, 90
ideal layout, 105
importance, 90-1
mistakes to be avoided, 104-5
new developments, 99-100
objectives, 91-2
planning steps, 100-3
principles, 92-3
systems, approach, 94-5
types; 94
Letters, filing and finding, 202
Lighting, office, 110-15
artificial, 113-4
best kind, 115
factors, 111-2
flourescent, 114-5
importance,
incandescent, 114-5
natural, 112-3
Line and staff organisation
demerits, 40
distinguished from line, 42-3
merits, 39-40
nature of relationships, 38
types of staff, 39
types of staff functions, 38-9
Line organisation
characteristics, 35-6
demerits, 37
distinguished from line and staff, 42-3
line functions, 39
merits, 37
principles, 36-37
Location of office, 84-6
centralised, 85
decentralised, 85
factors, 85-6
urban or suburban, 84-5
Loose leaf binders, 200-01
advantages; 201
features, 200
types, 200

Machines or Mechanisation, *see* Office Machines
Mail inwards, 336-44

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circulation slip, 339-40
mail register, 340-1
mail room schedule, 342
procedure, 337-44
routine, 344
Mailing machines, 276-77
envelope sealing, 276
mailing, 277
letter opening, 276
paper folding, 276
Mail outwards, 345-52
centralisation, 345-6
procedure and despatching, 346-51
rules, 351-2
Mailing service, 333-6
centralising, 335-6
planning, 334-5
types, 333
Management training, 420
Manuals, office
administrative practice, 425
advantages, 430
departmental practice, 425-7
disadvantages, 430-1
distribution, 429
meaning, 423
multipurpose, 427-8
need, 423-4
organisation, 424-5
policy, 424
principles, 428
revision, 429
steps, 428-9
types, 424-8
writing, 429
Merit rating, 509-16
approaches, 510,
benefits, 510-1
defined, 509
importance, 509
methods, 511-6
Motion study, 379-81

Noise, reduction of
control, 116-17
defined, 115
measurement, 116
types, 116

O and M
acceptance, 398
advantages, 409
defined, 398
disadvantages, 409-10
need, 398-9
objectives, 399
officer, 399-400
practice 399
principles, 400-1
steps, 401-9
Office environments, 91-107
Office equipment and
machines, 213-78
Office machines (also mechanisation)
advantages, 216-7
defined, 213
disadvantages, 217-8
establishing need, 214-5
objects, 213-4
principles of selection, 215-6
types, 219-78
versus man, 218-9
Office management
defined, 16
functions, 16-22
Office manager
defined, 231
duties, 27-8
functions, 25-7
position, 23
qualities, 23-5
responsibilities, 29-30
Office procedures or routines, 65-6
Office space planning, *see* Layout, office
Office systems
advantages, 73-4
characteristics, 66
defined, 65
distinguished from office routines, 66
essentials for success, 67
importance, 66-67
implementing, 72
integration, 72-73
limitations, 74-5
master systems plan, 73
organisation for systems design,
68-71

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Gandhi Memorial College Of Education Bantalab Jammu

planning and designing, 67
revision, 75-6
Open offices, 95-7, 99
Open shelf filing, 185-6
Organisation, office, 31-49
characteristics, 31
committees, 46-9
defined, 32
principles, 33-5
span of control or management, 44-6
steps, 32
structure, 32-3
types, 35-44
Office supervision (supervisor)
committees, 164-5
decision-making, 152
defined, 144
delegating, 153
discipline, 153-5
elements of effective supervision, 156-7
functions, 147-8
human relations, 152-3
in action, 156-61
knowledge needs, 151
morale, 155
performance/progress review, 161-3
position, 145-6
responsibilities, 148-50
saving, 121-2
skill needs, 151
training, 457-9
types, 144-5
women supervisors, 163-4
working supervisors, 145

Payroll machines, 278
Personnel, office, also Personnel Management, 493-555
absenteeism, 543-4
approaches, 493-4
functions, 494-5
incentive plans, 529-33
induction, 505
job evaluation, 506-9
management training, 521
meaning, 493
merit rating/performance appraisal, 509-16
placement of employees, 521-2
profit sharing, 534-7
promotion, 522-5
recruitment, 497-505
retirement and exit benefits, 540-1
salary administration, 537-8
salaries and wages, 528-9
setting up personel department, 495-6
trade unions, office, 544-7
training of supervisors, 519-21
training of workers, 516-9
transfer, 525-6
turnover, 545-6
welfare, employee, 542-3
Photocopying
advantages, 237
choice of method, 244
diffusion transfer, 238-9
disadvantages, 237-8
methods, 238
microfilming, 242-4
xerography, 240-2
Posting machines, 258-9
advantages, 258
drawbacks, 258-9
types, 259
Profit sharing, 534-7
Production control, 382-7
advantages, 384-5
approach, 385
defined, 382
despatching, 382, 383
follow-up, 383, 384
in practice, 384-5
inspection, 383, 384
objects, 382-3
planning, 382, 383
routing, 382, 383
scheduling, 382, 383
steps, 382-4
Punched card machines, 260-2
advantages, 260-1
drawbacks, 261
equipment, 261-2
operations, 262

Quality control, 387-92

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Gandhi Memorial College Of Education Bantalab Jammu

benefits, 388
defined, 387
importance, 387-8
indicators, 387
methods, 388-9
need, 343-4
programme, 389-92

Recentralisation of authority, 60
Records management
analysing, 168
defined, 166
manuals, 167-8
principles, 167
purposes, 166-7
Records Retention Schedule, 204-5
Records room, organisation, 205-6
Reports, business (or office), 383-90
classification, 436-7
control, 443-4
defined, 435
evaluating, 444
follow-up, 444
kinds, 437
master report control schedule, 443-4
objects or functions, 435-6
principles, 438-9
qualities or elements, 439-40
routine, 437
special, 438
steps, 440-2
timeliness, 442
Responsibility, 53
accountability, 53

Safety precautions, 125
Scientific management, 376
Security, office, 127-33
computer, 132-33
definition, 127
layout and security, 129-30
manual, security, 131
planning, 128-9
practice, 130-1
principles, 127-8
problem in old building, 130
training and discipline, 131
Standardisation and standards
advantages, 375
areas, 374-5
change, 379
defined, 371
effects, 375-6
objects, 374
steps, 376
Stationery and supplies, 354-72
centralised *versus* decentralised stores, 368
control of consumption, 369-72
essentials of a good system, 355-6
honour system of issue, 329
issuing, 367-8
kinds, 355
need for control, 354-5
organisation of purchases, 358-9
purchase procedure, 360-2
purchasing, 356-8
records, 364-5
selection, 356
standardising, 362
stock-taking, 365-6
stock valuation, 366-7
storage and store room, 362-4
Statistical data, 446-91
census method, 466-7
classification, 416-7
choice of sources, 409
diagrams, 420-30
editing, 472
factors in presentation, 433-4
graphs, 430-3
limitations, 452-3
method, sampling, 467-72
need in office, 446
phases of data collection, 449-52
preparation of index, 465
presentation, 472-91
sources, 453-65
tabulation, 473
techniques, 409
Suggestion systems, 552-5
Suspension filing, 183-4
advantages, 184
drawbacks, 184
types, 183

Telecommuting

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(Telecomputing), 319
Telegrams, types, 317-8
Telephone, 315-7
Teleprinters, also Telex, 312-3, 318
Television, 313-4
Temperature, 118
Time recording machines, 277-8
Tod cheque signing machines, 278
Toilets, 121
Typing pool, 330-2
advantages 331
disadvantages, 332
supervisor, 331
Typewriter, features, 219
types, 219-23

Ventilation, 117-8
Vertical filing, 181-2
advantages, 182
equipment, 181-2
Videovoice system, 319
Visible filing—Cards filing, 186-7
advantages, 186-7
types, 186-7
use, 186

Wages and incentives, *see* Personnel, Office
Work measurement
defined, 376-7
importance and usefulness, 377-8
methods, 378-9
steps, 378

Xerography, 240-2
advantages, 241-2
drawbacks, 242
process, 240-1

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